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Abstract

The study reported here was carried on under a Curriculum Research Grant from the U.S. Office of Education to the University of Hawaii from November 1966 to June 1969. The Education Department of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands jointly sponsored the English curriculum research and development. Objectives were to evaluate the current status of English (as a second language) instruction and proficiency in aural comprehension, speech, reading, and writing for Micronesian pupils and teachers in the Ponape District in Grades 1-12, and to develop instructional materials and sequential curriculum for an audiolingual approach to language learning, basing curriculum and methodology on an analysis of key English structures and on problems in learning English communication skills in the Ponape District. This document, a detailed report of the study, consists of the following: (1) a summary of the project; (2) background information; (3) a review of recent literature and research related to language learning; (4) a current status study; (5) methods and materials; (6) findings and analysis of pre- and post-testing; and (7) conclusions and recommendations. References, a bibliography, and appendixes

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CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS FOR SCHOOLS OF THE TRUST TERRITORY OF THE PACIFIC ISLANDS

M. Roseamonde Porter
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Honolulu, Hawaii 96822

June, 1969

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UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII

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I wish to express my deep appreciation to the loyal staff members who worked tirelessly to accomplish the purposes of this project, and to the many teachers and administrators in the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands who gave their cooperation and support generously.

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ERRATA

Page 118: In a summary reference to Lado Test scores used in assessing Micronesian teachers' English proficiency, a typing omission has inadvertently combined two paragraphs. Following the first full paragraph, there should be inserted:

The 70 to 79 percent score group, which included 31.8 percent of the teachers, have a considerable handicap in understanding spoken English but can, in most cases, manage a half-time load of academic work.

The current second paragraph would then be corrected to read:

The 80 to 89 percent score group, which included 19 percent of the 118 teachers, understand English sufficiently well to begin work in their fields of interest on a full-time basis.

For a fuller discussion, see the original reference on page 59.

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CHAPTER 1

SUMMARY OF CURRICULUM RESEARCH PROJECT*

This study was carried on under a Curriculum Research Grant from the U.S. Office of Education to the University of Hawaii extending from November 1, 1966 to June 30, 1969. The Department of Education of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands jointly sponsored the English curriculum research and development.

The objectives were: (1) to evaluate the current status of English instruction and proficiency in English Aural Comprehension, Speech, Reading and Writing for Micronesian pupils and teachers in Ponape District in Grades 1-12 to assist in planning curriculum and implementing it in the schools; (2) to develop instructional materials and sequential curriculum for an audiolingual approach to language learning, basing curriculum and methodology on analysis of key English structures and on problems in learning English communication skills in Ponape District.

The experimental hypothesis was that the Curriculum Research English materials would produce better progress in learning English that the Tate Oral English series adopted for use in the Trust Territory in June, 1967.

This hypothesis was tested in the 1967-68 school year, using an experimental-control school design in a sampling of elementary schools in Ponape District. A random sampling of the school population in the experimental and control schools furnished the pretesting and posttesting data for the analysis of the research results. The Curriculum Research English Language Proficiency Tests were developed for use in the experiment because no suitable tests were available.

Regarding Objective No. 1, the level of adequacy of English instruction was very low at the time the current status survey was done in the spring, 1967. It showed a dearth of published instructional materials and materials developed to fit the local situation; confusion regarding the Trust Territory policy that English was to be taught in Grade 1 and whether literacy in the vernacular was to be taught; a need for a structured English curriculum with model lesson plans; a need for the adoption of a standard orthography and development of instructional materials in the vernacular; and a need for a greatly increased teacher education program in the Trust Territory.

The second part of the current status study showed that a sampling of Micronesian elementary teachers compared with Trust Territory high school seniors were on a higher level of proficiency than the students on the whole. Each district needed to take responsibility for continuing intensive work in all areas of English skills and especially reading and writing, including intensive work with teachers. Research has shown that pupils whose language skills are arrested at a low level are also arrested or severely hampered in their ability to abstract, to conceptualize, to think creatively and critically. The future development of the Trust Territory's human resources will be significantly affected by the school's work in this area.

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*CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS FOR SCHOOLS OF THE TRUST TERRITORY OF THE PACIFIC ISLANDS

Regarding Objective No. 2, a Curriculum Research English program was developed with the production of Books 1-10, ending at Grade 6 which is sufficient through Grade 8 in the present stage of English language development in the Trust Territory. A combination of picture, story, and dialog showing the use of an English structure in a natural situation was used instead of the direct method with very strict sequencing and concentrated drill on small pieces of structure. Much listening to narratives for aural comprehension was used, extracting a particular structure for production but hearing some for review and others for the purpose of recognition of structures to come. Varied activities were included in the lessons. Reading and writing materials were incorporated into Books 7-10 as reinforcement of the oral structures. Achievement tests were prepared and inserted at the end of each unit to measure children's progress, diagnose needs, and evaluate the curriculum materials.

The data resulting from the testing program did not support the hypothesis that the CRC English materials would produce better progress in learning English than the Tate materials for Ponapean children.

Both the experimental and control treatment groups made significant gains under their respective English programs.

In the 2 x 2 factorial analysis performed on each of the twenty-five test variables, geographic area and treatment groups were the major factors and the pretest was used as a linear covariate in each analysis. In each analysis the covariate was significant at the .05 probability level. However, on only seven of the 25 test variables was there a significant difference between the experimental and control groups, in each case in favor of the control group. These seven variables were concerned with oral production as mimicry and the formation of plurals, and some reading skills.

The interaction between treatment and geographic areas reached significance in three of the subtests. At Level I on the oral production or mimicry subtest the interaction was significant at the .01 level, with experimental group doing poorly in the rural area and control group much better. The converse was true in the urban area. On oral reading, Subtest 4, interaction was significant at the .05 level, with the experimental group doing more poorly in the urban area while the control group did better. On free composition at Level II, Subtest 11, interaction was significant at the .05 level, with the control group showing greater increase in the urban area while the experimental group made greater gain in the rural area.

Using an adjusted mean in the posttesting to account for initial differences, the urban sample made significantly greater gains than the rural on only two of the 25 variables, while on one the rural gains surpassed the urban.

Some of the differences between experimental and control groups on certain subtests might be explained by uncontrolled variables which have been identified:

1. The findings of the Curriculum Research Project were based upon a short-term evaluation of slightly more than six months between pre- and post-testing.

2. The Tate materials had already been field tested and revised, whereas the Curriculum Research materials were produced, classroom tested, revised, and evaluated within the short time of a year and a half.

3. Three of the subtests showed very low reliability coefficients.

4. The bilingual/multilingual factor was recognized but only partially controlled, thus affecting the standardization of the testing procedures.

5. The fact that there were higher pretest means in all but one of the instances of significant gains between treatment groups or geographic areas, with the direction of change from higher to yet higher, raises the question as to whether greater initial ability acted in a dynamic or non-linear way, indicating a differential rate of learning.

6. The control urban schools had at Level II and III a group of children with the most continuous opportunity yet afforded Ponapean children to learn English from a native speaker since the beginning elementary grades. This might affect rate of learning as well as achievement.

7. The wider age range and the larger number of overage students in the experimental groups might have caused a slower rate of learning as well as a lower achievement level than in the control groups.

8. There was a town bias in the content of the sentences and the corresponding illustrations in some of the subtests for aural comprehension and discrimination, which might account for the greater gain in the urban samples, on these subtests.

9. The large urban control school introduced reading in English in the first three grades (even in Grade 1).

Conclusions and Recommendations.

1. The period of evaluation of both the experimental and control English materials was so short that the findings should be considered inconclusive. Further use and evaluation of both sets of materials over a period of five years is recommended.

2. Intensive and continuous work on English language skills, including reading and writing which are very low, is imperative in order to provide the tools for learning.

3. A clear policy regarding the development of literacy in the native languages should be established and implemented.

4. The development and selection of curriculum materials in all subject matter areas and the supplying of them to the schools are crucial needs.

5. The development of strong teacher education programs in the Trust Territory is urgently needed.

6. The Curriculum Research Project Proficiency Tests should be revised further and norms established.

Leads for basic research.

1. Longitudinal study of possible different rates of learning when children enter school at markedly different ages, and the implications for educational planning.

2. Longitudinal study of possible differential rates of learning when differential levels of English achievement exist at school entrance, and the implications for educational planning.

3. The development and use of reading materials in the vernacular, with research on the long range effect of developing reading skills in English in place of or parallel with reading skills in the vernacular.

4. Longitudinal study of the effects on language and cognitive development and social attitudes of the patterns of child rearing typical of Micronesian cultures, and the implications for educational planning.

The Trust Territory needs the help of a strong research program to search for the answers to basic questions in order to formulate sound policy decisions and action programs. It is suggested that field research at the university graduate or post-doctoral level would be extremely helpful both to the Trust Territory and to the university. It would make a significant contribution to the planning for the development of the human resources of Micronesia.

CHAPTER 2

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

In the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, the public school system with instruction in English has been established and developed since World War II. Some mission schools taught in English existed prior to that time. During the Japanese administration, instruction was carried on in Japanese and the Japanese language was the lingua franca of that generation.

The islands of the Trust Territory are spread over an area as large the United States. Nine distinct languages are spoken which have been studied and recorded with varying degrees of thoroughness by missionaries or linguists. In addition, there were many dialects. There are significant cultural differences among the island groups.

The Trust Territory is divided into six districts: the Mariana Islands, the Marshall Islands, Ponape, Truk, Yap, and Palau. Up until the 1962-63 academic year, the tenth grade was the highest level of public education available to a student within his district. The Pacific Islands Central School located in the Ponape District provided senior high school education for a select group of students from all districts. While this did not provide universal education through the senior high school, it had the values of (1) providing a common experience for the more capable students from all districts, which tended to develop mutual understanding and cohesiveness among the widely scattered islands, and (2) developing a common language, English, which facilitated communication among the districts with different languages.

The Trust Territory government has now developed a senior high school in each of the district centers, with two additional high schools located in Ulithi and Kusaie. The Pacific Islands Central School has now become the district high school for Ponape.

Request for Assistance. During the administration of the former High Commissioner of the Trust Territory, Mr. M. W. Goding, a request was made by the High Commissioner to President Thomas Hamilton, University of Hawaii, for assistance in curriculum development and research in the Trust Territory.

A grant was obtained under the United States Office of Education Cooperative Research Programs of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare for a two-year Curriculum Improvement Program in English Language Skills for Schools of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. Ponape was selected as the pilot district because facilities for teacher education are available there at the Micronesian Teacher Education Center (MTEC). The study was to be conducted in a sampling of the schools of Ponape District.

In developing an English language curriculum for the Trust Territory, the principles of curriculum change had to be applied in a physical setting which posed unique communication problems and in a cultural milieu composed of several district languages and culture patterns. The situation was complicated by the fact that the curriculum must be planned to assist in the adjustment to the stresses and strains of this modern world, to the development of economic resources, and to the making of decisions regarding the Trust Territory's future as a governmental unit.

Trust Territory English Policies and Instruction. Both the wishes of the indigenous peoples as expressed through the Council (now the Congress) of Micronesia and the established policy of the Trust Territory Government were to make English the language of instruction throughout the schools as rapidly as possible. However, all degrees of mastery of acceptable English was reflected in the inability of both teachers and pupils to handle the materials of instruction because English language skills were not an effective part of their communication behavior. This inability affected the pupils' entire academic career when all reading, discussion, writing, and evaluating in all areas of the curriculum must be done in English. There is a positive correlation between proficiency in English and academic success when English is the medium of instruction.

Young children learn language patterns more easily than older children. Moreover, such patterns become relatively fixed at an early age. Consequently if one waits until high school to work on developing standard English language patterns in school, it is too late to do more than remedial instruction to correct faulty speech patterns which have been learned through family and community contacts.

At the time when the High Commissioner approached the University of Hawaii for assistance in curriculum development, the official Trust Territory policy was that instruction in English should begin in the first grade classes. This policy was interpreted in various ways, however, with some teachers trying to use only English and with others teaching aural comprehension and speech in English but teaching other parts of the curriculum in the vernacular. In some schols there were no teachers who knew enough English themselves to teach in English. Furthermore, there were no standard English curriculum materials or teachers' guides provided for use throughout the Territory.

Acceleration of Education. In 1963 the Accelerated Elementary School Program was initiated throughout the Territory with money appropriated by the United States Congress for this purpose. This money was used to build new schools, to bring in American teachers, to provide teachers' housing, and to purchase necessary instructional materials.

From 1964 to 1967 an effort was made by the Trust Territory Department of Education to put a native English speaking teacher in every school to work with the teaching of English as a second language (TESL). With the advent of the Peace Corps in Micronesia in the school year 1966-67, the number of American contract teachers was augmented by Peace Corps Volunteers assigned to schools as TESL teachers. However, there were still no standard instructional materials or teachers' guides to help them.

UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII CURRICULUM RESEARCH

The Curriculum Research Grant from the U.S. Office of Education to the University of Hawaii became operational on November 1, 1966. The services to be performed under this grant were:

1. Evaluate the current status of English instruction and proficiency in English Aural Comprehension, Speech, Reading and Writing for Micronesian pupils and teachers in Ponape District in Grades 1-12 to assist in planning curriculum and implementing it in the schools.

2. Develop instructional materials and sequential curriculum for an audiolingual approach to language learning, basing curriculum and methodology on analysis of key English structures and on problems in learning English communication skills in Ponape District.

The objectives and experimental hypothesis as stated in the original research proposal have been modified somewhat since that time, as this report will explain. However, the original statement is given here, together with a description of the experimental design and the overall structure of the curriculum guide in English language communication skills.

Objectives. The objectives of the improved elementary and secondary English language curriculum were:

1. To develop the basic learnings in the areas of the English language communication arts to as high proficiency as the individual students' abilities and aspirations permit in order to provide (a) the basic skills and understandings necessary for competence in a chosen vocation; and (b) to profit from the type of concurrent and continuing education desired by the individual (vocational, college, or adult education).

2. To teach English in order to develop (a) a common language for practical communication needs between districts in the Trust Territory; (b) understanding and cohesiveness within the territory; (c) communication with the American personnel in the administering authority, the United States; (d) communication with people in many other countries; and (e) a valuable tool in jobs and in continuing education which may be available in the Trust Territory, in Guam, and in various other places where facility in English is needed.

Experimental Hypothesis. The proposed English language curriculum improvement program, when implemented in the schools, will raise the level of achievement in respect to the objectives listed to a significant degree, as measured by objective evaluative instruments.

Experimental Design. The overall plan for the project included (1) a survey of current instructional materials, curriculum sequence, and methodology in use at the various levels in Ponape District to teach English communication skills; (2) a current status study of a sampling of Micronesian teachers in Ponape District to determine their level of proficiency in the English language communication skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing; (3) the development and/or selection of culture-fair tests for use in testing both teachers and pupils; (4) the development and pilot testing of curriculum in English communication skills for Grades 1-8; (5) the use of experimental and controls schools with pupils selected on the basis of random sampling techniques, with pre-testing and post-testing and comparative analysis of progress in communication skills under two different types of curriculum; (6) the use of a situational approach to learning English with much listening experience and with drill on specific speech patterns and structures related to meaningful first-hand experiences; (7) the policy of beginning reading and writing in the vernacular with beginning work in aural comprehension and oral English running parallel to reading and writing in the vernacular, shifting to reading and writing in English about Grade 3, and (8) the relating of English language and language-related skills to other parts of the curriculum.

Limitations. A contrastive analysis between English and the vernaculars was discarded because of (1) the multiple vernacular situation and (2) the lack of scientific recording and standardization of the vernaculars.

In place of a contrastive analysis of the languages, the key structures of English formed the corpus of the curriculum, with adjustments to suit cultural factors and problems in learning English.

Overall Structure of Curriculum Guide in English Language Communication Skills. This included the four language areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, Grades 1-8. The guide was written simply with much concrete help in the form of visual aids, activities, and lesson plans.

The starting point was real life situations appropriate to maturity levels and to the culture. Committees of teachers in the experimental schools served as informants and worked on identification of situations appropriate for this approach. Real experiences in school, use of real objects, manipulation and doing were suggested. The use of language went on in connection with these experiences.

From the very beginning of Grade 1 the vernacular was used for the core of the school program, with much language arts leading into reading in the vernacular in the latter part of the school year. Experience charts furnished a large part of the reading in the vernacular.

After reading and writing in the vernacular were well started, reading would begin in English of spoken words and language patterns. The amount of reading would increase, together with writing what pupils already spoke and read. Reading in English would begin about Grade 3. English language teaching would be related to other subjects in the curriculum.

Beginning at about fourth grade level, effort would be directed toward a gradual transition to instruction in English throughout the school day. This would require a period of several years to accomplish, but by the end of Grade 8 the students should be able to shift into a high school program of instruction conducted in English.

It was not the intention to structure the curriculum guide rigidly by grade levels, but rather in terms of sequence of learning.

Model lesson plans would be developed and these would be tried out by teachers in the experimental schools. They would try out both plans developed by others and their own plans. Their feedback on what had been successful would be important. Achievement tests at the end of each unit would be developed to help in identifying needs and measuring progress.

The development of audio-visual aids and activities would be part of the program, with emphasis on teaching teachers how to develop meaningful audio-visual materials and varied activities with children participating in the process.

NEW TRUST TERRITORY TESL POLICY

Initiation of the New Policy in TESL for the Trust Territory. The new policy was approved at Trust Territory Headquarters following a TESL conference in Saipan May 8-12, 1967. Included in the conference was Dr. G. A. Pittman, Language Teaching Specialist, South Pacific Commission, who had just completed a visit in the various districts and schools of the Trust Territory to observe the teaching of English as a second language. It was his judgment that a common program for teaching English as a second language should be adopted throughout the islands of the Pacific, and he recommended the materials developed by Miss G. M. Tate under the auspices of the South Pacific Commission.

The new policy was established by Administrative Directive No. 67-4 dated June 20, 1967. This directive (see Appendix A) reached the Field Director of the Curriculum Research Contract in July. This was in the midst of the summer workshop (June 12-July 21, 1967) set up to orient the teachers of the Ponape experimental schools to the initial TESL curriculum materials prepared by the staff of curriculum writers.

Relation of the New TESL Policy to the Curriculum Research Philosophy. The Basic Objectives, Basic Principles, and Nos. 1 and 2 under TESL in the Elementary Schools agreed quite closely with the Curriculum Research philosophy. These sections are quoted:

> "BASIC OBJECTIVE
>
> "English shall become the general language for communication and instruction in the Trust Territory.
>
> "BASIC PRINCIPLES
>
> "1. Elementary school children, starting in grade one, shall be taught to read in their local language.

"2. English shall be taught as a second language. The Teaching-English-as-a-Second Language (TESL) Program includes two major areas:

  "a. Oral English, and
  "b. Literacy in English

"3. English shall become the medium of instruction in the schools as soon as the students indicate sufficient evidence of their ability to comprehend other subjects in English.

"TESL IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

"1. Oral English

  "a. A minimum of one hour per day of instruction in oral English shall be provided each student.

  "b. At least one year of oral English shall precede any attempt to teach literacy in English.

"2. Grouping

  "a. Elementary school students shall be grouped in accordance with their English language development for purposes of TESL instruction.

  "b. The size of each TESL class shall be restricted to a maximum of twenty-five (25) students."

An important difference between the TESL policy just stated and the Curriculum Research philosophy was that two years of oral English were recommended by the Curriculum Research staff to precede any attempt to teach literacy in English, thus delaying the beginning of reading and writing in English until Grade 3. During Grades 1 and 2 the teaching of reading and writing in the vernacular would be pushed ahead as fast as possible, and would continue to the extent that materials in the vernacular were developed and made available. The purpose was to develop genuine literacy in the local language.

Comparison of the Tate materials with the Curriculum Research materials. Both sets of materials used a situational approach, aiming to present all English utterances in a meaningful context and to keep constant check on comprehension. Both used an audiolingual approach with the corpus based on key structures of the English language rather than contrastive analysis of the languages.

However, the Tate materials were highly structured, presenting one piece of structure at a time, and the pieces of structure were mostly very simple ones. These materials protected the child from complexity, perhaps unnecessarily. With the present dearth of trained teachers and lack of materials, the Tate materials were probably a good choice for the Trust Territory and it was an important step forward to have made such an adoption. If a teacher used them as intended, the children would receive a great deal of oral drill and would learn the meaningful use of many relatively simple utterances appropriate to a number of common situations.

ADJUSTMENT IN CURRICULUM RESEARCH

Because the new Trust Territory TESL policy announced in Administrative Directive No. 67-4 was a marked departure from the previous policy, adjustment in the focus of the Curriculum Research efforts was required. The decision was made to focus the comparison of the experimental and control groups primarily on the relative effectiveness of the teaching materials predicated on the assumptions in the foregoing paragraphs.

The published reading materials prescribed in Administrative Directive No. 67-4, and therefore used in the control schools which used the Tate TESL materials, were the Miami Linguistic Readers as basal readers complemented by the South Pacific Commission Readers as basal readers after Bk. 5 of the Miami series.

The published reading materials used in the experimental schools were Harper and Row Linguistic Science Series complemented by Reading Comprehension materials prepared for the upper grade levels. Other supplementary materials might be used in upper grades. At the primary grade levels Ponapean stories and primers had been written for the beginning reading experiences in the vernacular. These needed to be refined, as did the TESL lessons, after trying out.

It was expected that the teaching of English would be related to the instruction in other subject areas, particularly at the upper grade levels. This kind of correlation would be made to the extent possible in the earlier grades. There would be great emphasis on reading and writing, particularly in Grades 7-8.

CONCLUSIONS

Recommendations by Dr. Ruth Crymes, Linguistic Consultant, University of Hawaii.

1. An English curriculum can only be as good as its foundations. If the Curriculum Research materials could be worked out for the first 6 years (and for the present such materials would be enough for 8 years) they would constitute a major contribution to the teaching of English in the Trust Territory. "Working materials out" means not only producing first drafts for immediate use, but revising the materials on the basis of classroom use and observation and then trying them out again. A request for a project extension was recommended in order to provide the time needed for adequately developing foundation materials for Grades 1-6.

2. It was recommended that the preparation of materials be cut off at the elementary school level, Grades 1-6. Future English materials for Grades 7-8 should be almost entirely correlated with the other subjects in the curriculum, with great emphasis on reading

and writing. Working out a program for Grades 7-8 that would follow and build on the foundation materials would be another project.

3. It was recommended that the proposal to include Grades 9-12 in the writing of materials be dropped. Various good tested published materials are available for the upper grade and high school levels.

Requests to the U.S. Office of Education, Cooperative Research Programs.

1. Permission was requested to drop Grades 9-12 from the Curriculum Research Project, and to cut off the production of materials with those which met the current commitment for Grades 1-8. (Materials through Grade 6 would be adequate for the present.)

2. An extension of the Curriculum Research Grant was requested to extend at least through 1968-69, thus allowing more adequate time for testing materials through Grade 6, revising, and testing them again. To make a fair comparison with the Tate materials, a longer time would be needed.

These requests to the U.S. Office of Education were approved. The grant was extended through June 30, 1969.

CHAPTER 3

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RESEARCH RELATED TO LANGUAGE LEARNING

ACQUISITION OF LANGUAGE

The remarkably rapid progress in the acquisition of language by young children in short time has been substantiated by numerous studies, including McCarthy (1954) and McNeill (1966). The latter says that grammatical speech does not begin before one-and one-half years of age, but the basic process seems to be complete by three-and-one-half years----the short span of twenty-four months.

Understanding of the process of a child's growth through change in grammar has been sought by psycholinguists through observational and longitudinal studies of a small sample of children. The bulk of this new work has come from three sources: Brown and his colleagues at Harvard (Brown and Bellugi, 1964; Brown and Fraser, 1963; Fraser, Bellugi, and Brown, 1963); Ervin and Miller at the University of California at Berkeley (Ervin, 1964; Miller and Ervin, 1964); and Braine at Walter Reed Army Hospital (Braine, 1963).

The question of why a child's language changes through several periods from the telegraphically abbreviated speech of the early two and three word sentences to a form of utterance which includes the use of transformational grammar suggests that the load on the child's memory of too many special cases brings pressure to change. The child reduces the pressure by resorting to new grammatical devices that accord with the linguistic universals (McNeill, 1966). The child hears repeatedly the locally appropriate use of the linguistic universals and seems to discover the grammatical devices and linguistic universals in his parents' utterances. Expansion of child speech by parents' repeating the child's utterance, supplying missing features and restating the child's sentence (Brown, 1964) facilitates the child's acquisition of grammatical devices by presenting models which he can imitate. Seemingly, the adult assumes that the child can comprehend these grammatical usages even though he is not yet able to produce them in his speech (Slobin, 1964).

The hypothesis that comprehension of features of language (passive control) occurs earlier in language development than production of the same features (active control) is significant if it means that every feature of language is first under passive control and only later under active control (McNeill, 1966). Studies by Fraser, Bellugi, and Brown (1963) showed that (1) comprehension exceeded production in every grammatical contrast, often by a large margin; and (2) imitation exceeded comprehension on every contrast except one, again often by a large margin. The results support the assumption that passive control appears earlier in language development than active control.

Ervin (1964) found, when working with two-year-old subjects, that imitation was not grammatically progressive, and thus drew the conclusion that new features are not incorporated into a child's grammar through imitation.

Much more experimental work is needed on the difference between developing production and developing comprehension. The establishment and testing of a clear performance model may change the inferences drawn about children's competence when based on comprehension as compared to some other basis such as overt practice. If children gain little through overt practice, as Ervin's study suggests, a child's own production of speech may not be of key importance in the process of acquisition of competence. However, children appear to profit from examples of well-formed sentences in parental speech, which suggests that a child's additions to competence may be made through his comprehension. At the same time, the role of practice in specific situations is involved.

The experiment by McKinnon (1965) throws some light on the question of the kind of overt practice which is desirable. The major experimental variable in his experiment was the method of practice. He found that (1) the method which ranked first in superior results required the child to look at the picture on the card and try to compose the corresponding sentence before playing the card on the Language Master; he could play the card as often as he wished in order to learn the correct response. (2) The method which ranked second in results used a pictorial representation of the sentence presented, providing an opportunity to practice the sentence with a concrete presentation of its meaning. (3) The least effective method was analogous to the pattern practice method of the language laboratory, whereby a sentence is presented and the learner must repeat it. He was to listen to the sentences on a Language Master machine and imitate them as often as he wished until he thought he could say them very well, at the same time trying to think what was happening as he heard and said each sentence. The results suggest that mere repetition of sentences is not a desirable method of learning grammatical structure.

Another variable tested was an inductive vs. deductive presentation. The results showed that (1) the deductive procedure in which the teacher pointed out and explained the structural features produced superior learning to (2) the inductive procedure in which the children were given no special instructions but allowed to figure out the grammar for themselves.

In his description and discussion of this experiment, Carroll (1966) suggests that the most important recommendations to come from this experiment are (1) that the learning of grammar is best done with referential support (i.e., with the aid of semantic information concerning the content and relations of the particular grammatical structures), and (2) that active practice is more effective than passive practice.

In an analysis of linguistic theory by Chomsky (1966), he refutes the view (1) that language is a habit structure with a stock of fixed patterns acquired through practice and used as the basis for analogy and generalization; and (2) that linguistic behavior consists of "response" to "stimuli". Chomsky states that the most obvious property of normal linguistic behavior is that it is stimulus-free and innovative; i.e., it is characterized by a creative property of language use. Chomsky suggests that the linguist must try to discover the rules and underlying principles of organization of the generative grammar which the native speaker has unconsciously internalized. This is one step in determining (1) the intellectual organization which is a prerequisite for language acquisition and (2) the process by which this intrinsic organization in cognition takes place.

Summary. This section of the review of literature and research related to language learning deals primarily with studies of the basic processes by which a child acquires language at an early age. The recent research done by psycholinguists raises many questions regarding commonly accepted notions of the way a child learns language skills either in his native language or a second language. Clearly research in depth is needed on many of these questions. Longitudinal research with individuals and small groups of children is needed. At the same time, longitudinal research by teachers, language curriculum specialists, and applied psychologists during the school age period is essential in order to test the usefulness of experimental results with learners at various developmental levels in a school-structured environment.

Psycholinguists' most significant contributions are the findings that children learn better (1) by meaningful utterances than by practice of meaningless materials and (2) by active practice of novel utterances than by passive repetition. These findings need to be applied in the development of language curriculum materials used in school.

Psycholinguistic experimental results and their interpretation by authorities in the field in terms of a theory of language learning were applied in the Curriculum Improvement Program in English Language Skills for Schools of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands (USOE Project No. 6-1025).*

AUDIOLINGUAL APPROACH TO SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

The aural-oral approach (recently more commonly called the audiolingual approach) to second language teaching stresses the training of the ear to hear accurately and the tongue to imitate correctly the speech behavior presented as a model. The child's first contact with the foreign language is by the spoken word. Listening to a new utterance with attempts to understand is stimulated by the teacher's use of techniques to help the child associate his perception of the utterance with its meaning.

The methods of teaching associated with the aural-oral or audio-lingual approach range over a broad spectrum from the earlier methods conforming to the mechanistic S-R learning theory to the more recent experiments stressing a meaningful approach.

Recent experiments (Marks and Miller, 1964; Miller, 1964; Mehler and Miller, 1964) indicated that the subjects recalled a meaningful sentence better than anomalous but syntactically correct sentence, and syntactically correct sentence better than scrambled forms; and that the semantic component might better be learned before the syntactical form.

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*Curriculum Research Project in Ponape

Other studies (Keislar and Mace, 1965; Keislar, Stern, and Mace, 1966) showed that the groups for which training in speaking preceded training in listening were superior in listening comprehension to those for which training in listening preceded training in speaking. Sequencing, not recency, appeared to be responsible for these results. These findings seem to contradict the hypothesis that comprehension of features of language (passive control) occurs earlier in language development than production of the same features (active control).

It seems clear that there is a need for further research on the relationships among the learning of semantic and syntactic elements and the choice and sequencing of methods of teaching these language components for both listening comprehension and oral production. While research has provided significant leads, nobody really knows how a language is learned.

Rivers (1964) examined the theory behind the audiolingual approach and its major assumptions about the foreign-language learning process, which in turn were examined in the light of psychological learning theory. Again it should be noted that a wide range of theory is associated with the audiolingual approach and likewise a range in psychological theory is associated with it. Rivers identified the major assumptions of the audiolingual approach as those which characterized the early development of the aural-oral period and which dominated linguistic thinking for many years. She chose the behaviorist school of psychology as the one on which the theory and methods of the aural-oral approach were based, at the same time noting that elements of other psychological theory appeared in the audiolingual approach.

Some of the assumptions identified by Rivers conflict strongly with the assumptions made by the psycholinguists quoted in the section of this chapter on the acquisition of language, as well as with the data from some of the experimental work reviewed in that section.

The assumption in the audiolingual approach is noted by Rivers that "foreign language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation." The point of view that language is a set of habits developed by drill on structures, by reinforcement of correct performance by rewards, and later followed by generalization is contrary to McKinnon's findings (1965), Carroll's discussion (1966), and Chomsky's theory (1966). Chomsky's emphasis on the characteristic creative aspect of normal language use seems to contradict the assumption noted above. The question is raised: If creativity is a normal aspect of language, how can it be developed through a mechanical process of habit formation?

It should be noted that in the major psychological theories (Rivers, 1964), guidelines for the maximum effectiveness of drills involving repetition of the right response include (1) responses to cues approximating those in a real-life situation; (2) practice where it is effective as communication in a variety of situations; (3) avoidance of overlearning which fixates stereotyped responses and reduces the students' ability to select among possible alternatives; (4) practice which helps the student understand in what way the response is "right," thus facilitating transfer to similar situations.

Learning can be measured only as the student demonstrates his ability to use the right responses to communicate in a variety of contexts in unstructured situations. Further investigation is needed to determine the factors which impede progress toward the active, spontaneous use of variations in learned patterns for the purpose of meaningful communication.

Among the proponents of the audiolingual approach, there is great variation in the beliefs and operational techniques related to this assumption stated by Rivers. As was pointed out in the Report on the UNESCO regional Seminar held in Sydney (1957), the aural-oral approach is not in itself a method. For example, it may follow the direct method which excludes the use of the learner's language in the teaching-learning process, or it may seem more economical of time and effort if the learner's language is used to some extent.

Dykstra (1967) stresses the importance of bringing together the emphasis on situation and meaning and the emphasis on linguistic pattern and native-like accuracy, creating new and better supporting materials for teaching and learning.

Rivers questions the argument that since listening, speaking, reading, and writing are the natural order by which a child learns his native language, therefore this is the best order for learning a foreign language. She states that the two cases are very different and the processes are different. She suggests that the strongest argument in favor of some visual support for the aural presentation in the early stages comes from studies of organization in perception. She makes a plea for the readmission of the graphic symbols representing the spoken language to the classroom in the early stages of learning. (She is referring here to high school students.)

In the extensive longitudinal research conducted by Loban(1966), it was found that pupils who ranked high in their use of oral language also performed well in reading and writing, while pupils whose oral language was poor also did poorly in reading and writing. There was a positive relationship between oral language and listening comprehension, reading and listening comprehension, and listening comprehension and writing.

The evidence of interrelatedness in learning among the various aspects of the communication skills is bringing about a searching look at the programs for teaching the communication skills. The sequence of teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing strictly in that order has been questioned, and experimentation with more integrated materials and procedure has been stimulated (Peterson, 1967; Davis, 1967).

There is not common agreement on the relationship between introducing reading in the mother tongue and introducing it in a foreign language. Bumpass (1963) says that a good guide to follow is that the child's reading skill should be well developed in his native language before reading in the foreign language is introduced. The research by Modiano (1968) shows that pupils learn to read better in a foreign language if they have first learned to read in their native tongue. In the extensive research done in the Philippines, Davis (1967) concluded from the Rizal experiment that it was advantageous to begin the teaching of reading in English in Grade 1 while work on literacy in the native language was also going on.

The point of view held for many years by the audiolingual group has been that curriculum materials for the study of a foreign language should be prepared by experts with a thorough understanding of the structure of that language and a careful scientific analysis of the contrasts between the learner's language and the target language. This point of view has now shifted greatly.

Regarding the practicality and necessity of heavy reliance on contrastive analysis, Wolfe (1967) points out that contrasts within the target language may present problems as serious for the learner as contrasts with certain structures of the native language. He suggests that the important contrasts to be mastered are those inherent within the target language. He also says (Wolfe, 1963) that many problems are eliminated by operating entirely in terms of natural contrasts within the particular language system, and that drilling contrasts between the target language and native language is not necessary if structures are adequately drilled within each language system. Contrastive analysis should then be taught in a course in translation.

Brière (1964) suggests as one conclusion of his study that any prediction of a hierarchy of learning difficulty requires exhaustive information and description rather than dealing with surface structures. Perhaps the contrast needs to be between transformational processes in the two languages.

The present thinking tends to fall along two lines: (1) contrastive analyses are not necessary--it is unrealistic to demand that teaching materials be based on them and they are not needed anyway, and (2) contrastive analysis might have better predictive value if the descriptions of the two languages being compared are really adequate descriptions.

Dykstra (1967) has investigated a different approach to the teaching of English as a foreign or second language. He says that for 25 years, leaders in this field have believed that separate materials are required for each linguistic or cultural background, basing these materials (1) on contrastive analysis of English and the indigenous language and (2) on observation of classroom problems. He points out, however, that in many areas of the world, the implementation of this belief is a practical impossibility. Nigeria has 250 indigenous languages; New Guinea 750; the Philippines 70; and many classrooms in the United States an unpredictable number which may shift from time to time. There is a shortage of qualified scholars to make adequate cultural and linguistic descriptions and a shortage of curriculum writers to prepare materials on the basis of such analyses.

The implementation of contrastive analysis is enormously difficult in the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. Thorough linguistic analysis of the nine major languages has not been done, although various linguists have worked on this task in one district or another. For example, in Ponape District Garvin (1949) made the most thorough analysis of the Ponapean language which is available to date. There are two major dialects of Ponapean. In addition, many of the people of Ponape District are native speakers of other languages including Mokilese, Mortlockese, Pinglapese, Kapingamarangi and Nukuoro. The situation differs in the written languages in which the orthographies are not standardized. Even in the spelling of an individual's name by the person himself, he may spell it different ways at different times. The multilingual classes commonly found are further complications in using linguistic analysis. The identification of problems met by learners while studying English as a second language is very important rather than depending very heavily on previous analysis of the Ponapean language. This situation is true in other countries in the Pacific area and in other areas of the world.

This problem has been solved by a number of curriculum writers by using the key structure of English to form the corpus of the curriculum (Tate, 1966; Dykstra, 1967).

Dykstra (1967) says that the similarities of English materials prepared for students of different language backgrounds suggests that there are fundamental common problems. Only inconclusive evidence has been found on the comparative results of the use of material prepared specifically for one culture when used in another. Seemingly, good materials prepared for speakers of one language work quite well with speakers of other languages. There are relatively similar as well as totally different elements among cultures, and there are language universals which run through the study of all languages. The role of the materials writer is to prepare a common core of materials suitable for adaptation by teachers to a range of situations and needs of students.

The English language materials developed by Dykstra (1967) provide a matrix in which pupils may communicate non-predictable messages in English in small groups in a multiple-unit class organization. The songs, physical education activities, playlets, reading, and writing exercises also include opportunities for the meaning-related use of language. In communication, the pupil has a purpose superordinate to that of language practice, which he can accomplish only by the use of recently presented or newly learned language forms. His hearers must respond overtly to the speaker's linguistic signals by selecting one of a wide range of potential responses. The programming of content uses all of the structural contrasts of the language for communication purposes, with sequencing which presents no more than one new contrast at a time.

Summary. Some of the ideas which have become prominent recently include (1) the introduction of new language structures through meaningful purposeful situations; (2) exposure to novel utterances, followed later by drill on selected structures; (3) consistent check on comprehension; (4) programming of structural contrasts for communication purposes; (5) use of novel utterances for communication purposes; (6) use of small classroom groups to respond to each other; (7) use of a variety of stories, songs, pictures, playlets, and realia; (8) use of active practice of novel utterances rather than passive repetition of stereotyped patterns; and (9) teaching reading and writing in the vernacular first.

Questions on which there is not agreement and on which research is urgently needed include (1) the degree to which contrastive analysis is necessary and how it should be used in curriculum development; (2) the soundness and feasibility of developing a set of core materials for use in several language and cultural settings, making use of cultural and linguistic universals; (3) effective ways of assisting teachers in adapting such core materials; (4) the most effective ways of introducing reading and writing in the new language; and (5) the most valid and valuable feedback and evaluation procedures.

More solid experimental work is needed with young elementary school children to obtain data on the ways of learning which are most effective for them. It is possible that experiments will show that data from the adolescent and postadolescent periods cannot validly be extrapolated and the conclusions applied to young children. A second possibility is that an eclectic methodology using a modified audiolingual approach with a variety of carefully selected and sequenced or integrated methods may prove superior to one approach. A third possibility is that the language structures best learned at a particular maturity level and the most effective sequence of learning can be identified and used for the guidance of language curriculum writers.

For writers of an English curriculum to be used in a largely non-literate culture such as the Micronesian which lacks a standardized orthography, much basic scientific work is needed as a foundation for curriculum writing. If learning to read and write in the mother tongue should precede reading and writing in a second language, this requires research on the cultures and on the structures of the native languages, establishing a standard orthography, writing the reading texts in the vernacular, and experimentation in ways of using the indigenous language to support the development of literacy in a second language.

EFFECT OF FACTORS IN THE HOME AND CULTURE ON THE CHILD'S LANGUAGE

Childrearing Practices. A child's ability to learn a second language would seem to be affected by the richness of use and the control he has achieved in the use of his mother tongue. The skills of conceptualizing and communicating in his first language would seem to affect his ability to conceptualize and communicate in a second language. This leads to the question: What factors have a strong influence on the learning of language skills in the first language, thereby later affecting the learning of a second language?

It has been hypothesized by many writers that the parents, as the dominant environmental influence on children through the elementary school years, have a significant influence on their language development.

The interaction of environmental and cognitive factors at a very early age operate through childrearing practices, value systems, the fostering of dependence or independence, and parents' intellectual aspirations for the child. Longitudinal research in which observation begins very early in the child's life both in and out of the home is needed to learn how the different emphases among ethnic groups are reflected in different organizations of mental abilities.

Investigations of the effect of mothers' childrearing practices on language and cognitive development (Milner, 1957; Bing, 1963; Bayley, 1954; Kagan and Moss, 1959; Noel, 1953) have consistently found that (1) learning is motivated by warm, positive adult-child relationships; (2) verbal ability is fostered by a high degree of interaction between mother and child and with warm adults with adequate speech patterns; and (3) nonverbal abilities are enhanced by allowing the child considerable freedom to experiment on his own.

Longitudinal studies of childrearing practices in Micronesia are needed to identify the subculture influences which have significant impact on children's language and cognitive development, thus furnishing a sound basis for educational planning.

Social Class Influences. Evidence supports the assumption that verbal interaction with people who surround him is the operative influence in the child's language development. In the lower-class family, language is used in a convergent, restrictive fashion in comparison to a divergent, elaborative fashion in the middle-class family (Bernstein, 1960).

There have been numerous studies of the impact of culture on the intellectual growth of disadvantaged children. Deutsch (1965) and Deutsch and Brown (1964) found that their learning deficit was cumulative between the first and fifth grade years with all the significant relationships between poorer performance and lower-class status. These children have poorer capabilities than middle-class children in handling the syntax of the English language, and thus are unable to use language as effectively in organizing thinking and in elaborating communication. Remedial and enrichment programs need to be introduced in school at the earliest possible time to arrest the increasing deficit.

Research studies consistently support the hypothesis of increasing quantitative and qualitative deficits in language and cognitive development resulting from unfavorable environmental circumstances. This suggests that the rate of learning is retarded in children who enter school with a deficit resulting from an unfavorable environment, and conversely the rate of learning is accelerated in children who enter school with more advanced levels in language and cognitive development resulting from a favorable environment. This hypothesis needs to be tested by longitudinal research.

Stodolsky and Lesser (1967) reviewed evidence from research on the learning patterns of disadvantaged children, examining five classes of learning indicators: general intelligence, specific mental abilities, school achievement, laboratory learning, and expressions of cognitive development deriving from stage theory. Studies have consistently found mean differences on measures of intelligence between children of high and low socioeconomic status at age four and younger, and these differences tend to increase with children's age. The hope of ridding intelligence tests of cultural contamination and the belief in fixed intelligence have been abandoned, and cultural effects are taken into account in test construction and prediction. In general, children of low social status and children from minority groups start school with verbal and nonverbal test scores below the national average, and their grade level achievement becomes cumulatively deficient.

Few studies of the patterning of learnings have been made. Studies of cognitive development have found that children's level of abstraction was related to social class, and that fewer verbalizations in classificatory behavior were given by lower - class than by middle - class children.

Detailed studies of environmental process variables in the homes of lower - class preschool and first grade children have found that the quality of the mother's language, her use of reinforcement in a teaching situation, and the extent to which she made task - relevant discrimination in teaching a task related highly to the child's vocabulary level.

More longitudinal studies which chart the course of growth within individuals are needed. These studies might include children of diverse backgrounds, but it is possible that circumstances which are relevant in one subcultural context would not generalize across subcultures (Stodolsky and Lesser, 1967, p. 558).

In a Specific Case of Research described by these authors, they examined the patterns among various mental abilities in six - and seven - year - old children from different social - class and ethnic backgrounds. Four mental abilities (verbal ability, reasoning, number facility, and space conceptualization) were studied in relation to two social - class components (middle and lower) in four ethnic groups (Chinese, Jewish, Negro, and Puerto Rican). It was found that the ethnic groups were markedly different both in the absolute level of each mental ability and in the pattern among these abilities. Moreover, "once the pattern specific to the ethnic group emerges, social-class variations within the ethnic group do not alter this basic organization"(p. 567). In a replication, as in the original data, the scores of the middle-class children from the various ethnic groups were more alike than the scores of lower-class children from these ethnic groups (p. 577).

Studies have not traced the course of social-class and ethnic influences longitudinally. No direct evidence shows whether ethnically distinctive patterns of mental ability persist, dissolve, or change with age (p. 579).

Cultural Influences of Community and Ethnic Origin. Bruner, Olver, and Greenfield (1966) collaborated with others at the Harvard Center for Cognitive Studies in studying the maturing of various cognitive operations. The work grew out of an initial conviction "that culture provides amplifiers in the form of technologies to empower human cognitive capacities" (p. XII). Included in the research were children from Dakar, Senegal, rural Mexico, and Anchorage, Alaska, as well as North American and European children. Although human culture has certain commonalities, great differences exist between Western suburban cultures and a subsistence culture or inner cities subcultures. The impact of various cultures on cognitive development concerned the research team.

In studying how human beings increase their mastery in achieving and using knowledge, it is important to know how children represent their experience of the world and how they organize their learnings for future use. Children move from the enactive mode (habitual coping actions) to the iconic mode (representation through imagery) to the symbolic mode (translating action and imagery into language). When his systems of representation come into conflict, a child has to revise his way of solving problems. Without training in the symbolic representation of experience, the child continues to depend largely on the enactive and iconic modes of representing and organizing the world. The growth of speech and the development of thought are interacting, interdependent processes.

In the studies reported by Bruner, et al. (1966) the development of equivalence, which requires finding a common basis for grouping, was one facet of growth investigated. It was found that the six-year-old uses imagery as a basic for grouping, but from six on, linguistic structures increasingly guide his judgment of what things are alike and how. Gradually and with much language development, the child moves toward true conceptual grouping based on superordinate class (pp. 84-85).

In an investigation of the learning of conservation, it was found that manipulation and labeling were highly successful, but each worked only when the other was also present. Manipulation and labeling together produced a remarkably high degree of learning among children (p. 221).

In a study of the impact of culture on learning conservation, three groups of children in Senegal were used: rural unschooled children, rural schooled children, and urban schooled children. It was found that there was a wider gap between unschooled and schooled children from the same rural village than between rural and urban schooled children (p. 253).

In a study of the impacts of culture on equivalence transformation, a group of rural Mexican children and a group of suburban North American children were used. The youngest children of both cultures, from age six to eight, were similar in their responses. At ages nine and ten, their performance at the task of analysis was still similar, but half of the North American children could synthesize well in comparison to only one of the nineteen Mexicans. The North American children were learning to employ abstract concepts of use, whereas the Mexican children continued to employ concrete attributes with greater perceptual subtlety. Even at the age of sixteen or seventeen the Mexican adolescent seldom abstracts, whereas the North American develops increasing facility with abstract functions and formal equivalencies (pp. 259-260).

In a comparison of urban children in Mexico City with rural children from a mestizo village, the urban children were closer to Boston in formulating equivalences than to the rural village. At age nine, more than twice as many urban as rural children succeeded at the equivalence task, and by twelve the difference was fourfold. By age twelve the village children fell far behind in the more abstract bases for grouping, nominal and intrinsic functional, whereas the urban child was more sophisticated linguistically and more abstract (pp. 263-266).

Other studies reported showed similar results. It was concluded that "schooling appears to be the single most powerful factor we have found in the stimulation of abstraction" (p. 315). The effect of schooling on analysis and synthesis by school children was explained by "the greater opportunity to practice language in contexts that do not carry the meaning for them automatically, who are forced thereby to use sentences to the full ---- learn to reorganize experience and action to conform to the requirements of language" (p. 316).

In the experiments reported, the differences between those in school and those out increased with age, seeming to indicate an early arrest of the process of intellectual growth in the unschooled children as compared to the schooled children.

Referring back to the assumptions noted by Rivers in audiolingual theory, she notes that "the meaning which the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a matrix of allusions to the culture of the people who speak that language." The social and cultural aspects of experience are represented in the symbolism of language. Communication among individuals and groups occur in social relationships where language represents the conventions, meanings and values of the cultures represented. For the personal meaning of a native speaker of one language to be expressed so that it is understood by a native speaker of another language, it is necessary to move into the area of social convention in the use of words, tone of voice, and intonation. In many countries of the world (e.g., in Japan and Micronesia) the hierarchical social system is clearly reflected in the language structure and social conventions, with certain terms used to address persons of higher status, others to address persons of lower status.

If culture stands "for the way of life of a people, for the sum of their learned behavior patterns, attitudes, and material things" (Hall, 1959), a knowledge of these elements of a culture is essential for adequate communication. For example, Hall discusses the widely varying concepts of time and the importance of time among nationals of different countries and cultures, and the negative effect on social relationships if one does not try to understand the other's point of view.

In Ponape, the island people are keenly aware of the importance of the tide movements and the time of high and low tides in relation to travel by boat. They are unconcerned about reporting to school at a set time each day until they have learned a concept of the importance of punctuality. The American attitude tends to be the reverse of the Micronesian's, a fact which can cause strained relations and an unwillingness to cooperate in matters of mutual concern. Differences in the family structure and in patterns of childrearing in the American and Micronesian cultures are areas with strong personal meanings and emotional involvement which can interfere with communication. Such daily school tasks as the establishment of acceptable behavior patterns and efficient organization of time, the application of disciplinary measures, and the development of respect for and care of school property can become major issues between parents and teachers and the source of hostile attitudes.

The assumption just discussed from audiolingual theory converges with the research at the Harvard Center for Cognitive Studies on the effect of culture on providing amplifiers to empower human cognitive capacities. This emphasizes the importance of studying the culture in which the teaching - learning program is going on. Longitudinal studies in Micronesia are needed to determine the effect of culture, particularly the socially imbedded factor of native languages, on the English language and cognitive development of the learners.

Summary. The group of studies reviewed in this section on the effect of factors in the home on the child's language point toward conclusions which are consistent although the specifics of the studies differ. These include the conclusions (1) that the quality of language used by children is determined by imitation of the parents' language; (2) that higher social class as expressed in a rich verbal family environment and positive emotional interaction with their parents bears a high relationship to children's development of language skills; (3) that lower-class children become progressively deficient in language skills from first grade, and need a remedial and enrichment program as early in school as possible; (4) that the mother's childrearing practices, particularly a close relationship with the child and a high degree of interaction between mother and child, have a significant effect on the development of the child's verbal ability; and (5) that the correlation between the mother's education and the child's IQ is higher for both sexes than between the father's education and the child's IQ, indicating that the mother's concern for developing intellectual potential serves as an environmental pressure to accelerate intellectual growth.

These conclusions indicate the crucial role of the child's early experiences in developing his language and cognitive abilities, which in turn affect his capacity for later learning. The well-established relationship of oral language skills to success in reading underscores the importance of developing richness and facility in the use of the mother tongue as a prerequisite for learning to read and also for learning a second language.

It is important to note the lack of research in Micronesia on the effects of factors in the home environment on the child's language aptitude and cognitive abilities. What is the pattern of childrearing practices and what are the results of the marked permissiveness and encouragement of dependency in young children? What opportunities are available for the development of language and concepts? What are parents' hopes for and expectations of their children? These questions need to be answered in order to have this basic information to build on in developing curriculum materials.

It would seem that research on second language learning needs to include the testing of these basic environmental factors as variables in a particular cultural matrix, rather than assuming that research only on the curriculum experienced by the child after he enters school can give definitive answers. Moreover, the school curriculum, particularly in the early grades, needs to be planned in the light of research findings on the development of languages and cognitive abilities. The assumption that it is possible to compensate for language and cognitive deficits through school programming directed toward this objective is supported by research on the effect of nursery school experience and of readiness programs for culturally disadvantaged children or any children who have suffered sensory-cognitive deprivation.

SECOND - LANGUAGE LEARNING AND BILINGUALISM

Projects and exemplary programs in English as a Second Language and in bilingualism are concerned with the problems and instructional needs of pupils who have initially learned a language other than English. A large proportion of these children from certain ethnic or national groups in the United States apparently have poor scholastic aptitude and achievement. They often are classified as "slow learners" or "mentally retarded," and placed in special classes. The apparent intellectual inferiority lies deeper than the language handicap of not knowing the words used in the verbal parts of the tests.

Jensen (1961) conceived a method for assessing the educational potential of Mexican-American children and others from different subcultures and ethnic groups by using tests which provide direct measures of present learning ability, instead of sampling the knowledge and skills the child has acquired in the past. Simple learning tasks were devised in which (1) language facility in itself was not a crucial variable in determining performance and (2) the materials of the learning task and the nature of the task itself were equally comprehensible and familiar to children from a variety of subcultures.

A study was carried on to determine whether or not groups of Mexican-American and Anglo-American children equated on IQ, using the California Test of Mental Maturity, are also equal in learning ability as measured by certain standard learning tasks.

The main finding was that on direct measures of learning (Immediate Recall, Serial Learning, and Paired-Associates learning of Familiar and Abstract objects), Anglo-American children of low IQ are slow learners as compared with Mexican-American of the same IQ. Compared with Anglo-Americans of high IQ, Mexican-Americans of the same IQ do not differ significantly in learning ability. Apparently the Mexican-American may be poor in scholastic performance for reasons other than inherently poor learning ability.

The significant findings and implications of Jensen's study are relevant to the situation in the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. The same problem of a lack of suitable tests for assessing educational potential exists because English language facility is a crucial variable and the nature of the materials is unfamiliar and incomprehensible to the children. Moreover, because almost no steps have been taken to develop language aptitude and cognitive abilities in the mother tongue in the early years before pushing ahead with English as a second language and also as the medium of instruction, many children have difficulty in learning and frequently become school drop-outs. A valuable longitudinal study would be the introduction of kindergarten program in the vernacular to obtain evidence regarding its value in the Micronesian culture in compensating for language and cognitive deficits. An experimental versus control group design would be useful in such a study.

According to Scarth and Regan (1968), in ESOL programs for Mexican-American children, many schools continue to insist on all-English classes and even discourage Mexican-American children from speaking Spanish. This occurs in spite of the successes of the Cuban bilingual schools in Miami, and in spite of research which shows that children learn to read and write English faster and with greater comprehension if first taught in their native tongue (Modiano, 1967 and 1968). The findings of Sanchez (1932) on the mental confusion and incomplete mastery of the two languages which the all-English approach produces in non-English-speaking children indicate that the results are poor academic achievement, high drop-out rates and illiteracy (often in both Spanish and English), and inability to function effectively in the majority culture.

Although no research has been done on these problems in the Trust Territory, observation of children's learning problems in the schools suggests strongly that parallel problems exist in the classes which came through school during the period when all instruction was supposed to be in English, beginning in the first grade.

In an Elementary and Secondary Education Act Title III Project, Exemplary Programs in English as a Second Language, San Diego County, California (Ibarra, 1967), language structure is built into the subject matter lessons in both languages, thus aiming at developing a proficient bilingual in both languages. The bicultural program provides for instilling pride and knowledge of the child's cultural heritage as he acquires appreciation for the culture of his adopted land.

A number of studies in Second-Language learning (Ibarra, 1967; Horn, 1966; Petersen, 1967; Hormann, 1947; King, 1967) have included as a significant concern the fact that a person's speech is learned in the family and is an integral part of his self. Thus it is deeply imbedded in the core of attitudes, values, feelings about himself and others, and his conception of the realities of the world around him. When the school rejects the dialect as undesirable or ignores the mother tongue, it rejects much of what the child is and cuts off its major avenue of communication with the child. Because speech is strongly imbedded socially, this results in prejudice between social groups and students' resistance to the teacher's efforts to establish standard English. Acceptance of the culture of the non-standard-English group as valid and worthy (which requires involving the parents) is an important part of communicating acceptance of the persons concerned, thereby motivating the desire to learn another culture and another language.

King (1967) reported a research project on Bilingual Readiness in Primary Grades which was conducted in certain Kindergarten and Grade 1 classes in New York City. A high-quality early childhood literature and bilingual language curriculum was used to unify classrooms which had remained inwardly segregated into ethnic groups. The language-through-literature, multisensory, multiple readiness approach utilized stories, songs, play, creative story-telling variations, and the use of education technology such as tape recorders and earphones. Language arts skills and bilingual reading readiness were linked to meaningful language usage through thought communication.

Summary. The studies on ESOL and bilingualism share a number of principles and practices: (1) use of the child's native tongue first; (2) grouping the children according to proficiency in English and adjusting the hours in English accordingly; (3) dividing the hours of the day to use both languages as a medium of instruction, not just the objective of instruction; (4) developing literacy in the native tongue; (5) using an audiolingual approach; (6) testing and evaluating both newly developed and other materials of instruction; (7) trying out culture-fair content for reading readiness and beginning reading such as science and children's literature; (8) bringing in the parents and demonstrating that they are wanted; (9) showing the pupils by the use of their language and their experiential backgrounds that they and their families and culture are accepted and valued; and (10) helping the children to develop a sense of identity and a healthy concept of self.

The Curriculum Research Project in Ponape makes use of many constructive principles and practices used in exemplary programs and research projects, including much use of songs, play-acting, games, pictures, folk tales, and fairy tales. Here again, research is needed to collect indigenous song and story materials before they are lost.

TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE IN THE PACIFIC AREA

The Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands is located in the Pacific area where other island territories and nations are attempting to find better ways to meet the language problems which are common throughout the area. It seems that research done on learning English as a second language in other Pacific Islands might be of particular value in furnishing a firm basis on which to develop curriculum in TESL. An intensive search was made for research reports emanating from the Pacific area, using annotated research bibliographies, summaries of research reports, inquiries directed to the South Pacific Commission, and personal correspondence with key educators in various Pacific Islands.

The only published research reports on second language learning which were located for the Pacific area are from Guam and from the Philippines. Research is in progress in American Samoa in the Education Television project. No statistical validation has been done on the Tate Oral English Course (Tate, 1966).

In Guam, where Chamorro is the mother tongue and the language of the family in many homes, Cooper (1962) did a study to test the importance of conversational English for non-English-speaking children.

> A 4-year Language Arts Program was begun on Guam using using two new approaches. It was felt that the primary grades language arts program should include (1) a year of conversational English, followed by the usual reading activities in Grades two and three and (2) one-half year of conversational English followed by the usual reading activities. It was hypothesized that both of these approaches were superior to the standard method, namely, the early introduction of formal reading in the first grade, and that these superiorities were apparent by the end of the third grade, or possibly the fourth. At the end of the first year, a test of oral English and the school achievement test were given to all pupils. During the spring of the third year, the California Achievement Tests and the picture section of Lado's Test of Aural Comprehension were given. Finally, the reading section of the California Achievement Test was given toward the end of the fourth year. It was recommended that a language arts program should include a longer period of time devoted to teaching conversational English, and that this would improve the subsequent learning of reading and listening skills.

In the Philippines, the language problems are similar in some ways to those in the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. The census lists 70 languages or dialects spoken by the inhabitants of the Philippines, but one of eight major dialects (often with one or more others) is spoken by the large majority of the population. In the Trust Territory, nine major languages have been identified plus many dialects. Whereas in the Philippines, the most frequently spoken language, Tagalog, has been chosen as the National Language, in the Trust Territory no Micronesian language has been chosen as a national language. Research projects needed in both the Philippines and Micronesia include (1) descriptive analyses of the major vernacular languages and comparative analyses of these languages with the target languages to be learned; (2) experimentation on the effectiveness of various fist-and-second-language teaching techniques, sequence and timing of the introduction of a foreign language, and patterns of combination of language teaching; and (3) preparation of and experimentation with linguistically sound teaching materials for the various phases of language teaching at different levels of instruction. In addition to the needed research, the in-service training of teachers to make intelligent use of the materials and techniques devised and the training of specialists in teaching English as a second language are urgent needs in both places.

The Philippines' long-range program to improve the teaching of English as a second language in the public schools of the entire country is one of the most thorough and extensive projects of this nature ever undertaken. Under an agreement between the Philippine Department of Education and the University of California, Los Angeles, Rockefeller Foundation Funds (Philippine Center for Language Study, 1967, Pt. I) were channeled through UCLA to assist in a study of the Philippine language problems, especially the improvement of English instruction in the schools. Early in 1957, government approval was given to "a general plan of work involving (1) in-service and pre-service training of teachers in the Philippines, (2) training of second-language specialists both in the Philippines and in the United States, (3) production of instructional materials, and (4) research and experimental projects."

In the Philippines, the National Language, which is called Pilipino but is actually Tagalog, was established by law as one of the official languages of the Philippines, effective July 4, 1946 (Samonte, 1967). The use and teaching of the National Language in all private and public schools was made compulsory by other laws. This started a three-cornered struggle between Tagalog, English, and the local vernacular which was used as the medium of instruction in the first two grades of the elementary school as required by the Revised Philippine Educational Program in 1957. The requirement in college of 24 units in Spanish for certain degree courses added to the struggle to cope with the language problems. According to Samonte (1967), the issues are (1) which one (English, Tagalog, or the vernacular) should be the medium of instruction in the elementary grades; (2) which should be taught as subjects; (3) at what grade level should they be offered; (4) what patterns of combining English, Tagalog, and the vernacular are best for language teaching at the various grade levels; (5) how much time should be allotted to the study of each; and (6) whether Spanish should be required in high school and/or college.

"A Survey of the Public Schools of the Philippines, 1960" was made by a team of American consultants and Filipino counterparts headed by Dr. J. Chester Swanson. As quoted by Samonte (1967), there appears to be general agreement (1) that the vernacular of the respective regions should be used as the medium of instruction in the early grades, that English should be the medium of instruction in later grades, and that Pilipino should be taught as a subject; and (2) that the number of languages in the elementary school should be limited to two in non-Tagalog regions as it now is in Tagalog regions.

According to Samonte (1967), because English is to be the medium of instruction in the later grades, it seems that a good combination is to teach English and the vernacular in the early grades, introducing Pilipino as a subject when English becomes the medium of instruction. This plan requires the introduction of only one foreign language at a time.

The time allotment under the Revised Philippine Education Program of 1957 is a total of 110 minutes a day in the first two grades, including English, the vernacular, and Tagalog under the heading of Language Arts.

The goal of literacy in the vernacular is achieved when the pupil can read, write, and figure in the vernacular. The pupil already speaks the vernacular of his region when he starts schooling; understands the meanings and concepts as well as the language patterns; and therefore can be started earlier in reading and writing in the vernacular than he can in English. Inasmuch as instruction in the first two elementary grades in the non-language subjects uses the vernacular for reading, writing, and discussions, this time should be allotted to the vernacular.

By the time the Filipino child has learned the patterns of English on a spoken basis, he will have passed through the stage of reading readiness in the vernacular and be well on his way in reading. He does not need the same reading readiness period in English because there is a transfer of training from the vernacular to English.

The initial writing of a series of teacher's guides and pupil's textbooks for English in the elementary grades was begun in 1958 (PCLS, 1967, Pt. I), and the preparation of guides for teachers of Pilipino began early in 1961. The guides were based upon a linguistic description of the English language, on contrastive analysis, and on field try-out of the materials. The prepublication issues used experimentally showed the necessity of backing a general program of language teaching with materials that assist in the presentation of concept, method, and content.

PCLS developed a tape library and a laboratory equipped with studio facilities as early as 1959. The first recordings were tapes of lessons for Grades I and II. The Radio Education Unit produced a series of 16 taped programs, "English for Teachers," and three years later a second series called "English as a Second Language."

Philippine language research began in the Philippine Normal College in 1960 and annual scholarships were increased. Today, it offers the M.A. degree in education with a major in TESL organized around the Language Study Center. The Philippine Normal College has had a three-year grant from the Ford Foundation involving a close relationship with UCLA. The University of the Philippines has set up the Institute for Language Teaching.

PCLS assisted a three-year experiment in method conducted by Emperatriz S. Tensuan in Pasay City to determine the relative effectiveness of learning to read Tagalog by the direct-phonic-drill method (progressing from recognizing graphemes, to pronouncing corresponding phonemes in sequence, to identifying words as words, to relating words to ideas and meanings involved) and the combination method or multiple-approach method (from associating word forms with meanings, to recognizing words and phrases, to identifying graphemes and pronouncing them in sequence, to relating these to meanings and ideas). The data led to the conclusion that the multiple-approach method yields better results in Grades I and II than the direct-phonic-drill method.

It should be noted here that the conclusions on reading methodology are not in agreement with some of the recent United States research on reading reviewed in a later section of this report. The situation in the teaching of reading is very unclear at this date both in the United States and elsewhere.

A three-year experiment was set up in the non-Tagalog-speaking province of Iloilo to determine the best curriculum design for teaching English and Pilipino in the lower grades as second languages in addition to using the vernacular as the medium of instruction. This experiment also provided a double check on the problem of method in Rizal.

The data from the Iloilo experiment, as concluded by Professor Davis, (PCLS, 1967, Pt. II) indicated that (1) "the teaching of both English and Pilipino in Grades I, II, and III has a favorable effect on the learning of English. (2) ... when both Pilipino and English are taught as second languages in Grades I, II, and III to children whose native language is Hiligaynon, it is best to begin both Pilipino and English in Grade I. (3) it seems reasonable to generalize the results to children in more or less typical schools where the medium of classroom instruction in Grades I and II is the native tongue and two other languages are taught on a systematic basis by modern methods involving the theory of second-language teaching." The assumption is made here that reading will be taught in the vernacular first.

These conclusions were confirmed by the survey of these experimental classes by the Measurement, Evaluation, and Guidance Division of the Bureau of Public Schools in 1965.

There is disagreement between these conclusions and the recommendations of the Swanson Team (Samonte, 1967) for the introduction of Pilipino.

Statistical analyses from experimental data have confirmed that confusion in learning from the three-languages situation does not hold true when each language is taught in the context of its own grammar, and effective use is made of repetition drill.

The Rizal experiment had two main purposes: (1) to determine in what grade it is best to begin reading in English, and (2) to determine in what grade it is best to introduce English as the medium of instruction.

On the first main purpose, the final conlusion based on the data was that the curriculum in teaching English as a second language should introduce reading in English in about the fourth month of Grade 1 (Davis, 1967, p. 41).

On the second main purpose, it was generalized that the use of English as the medium of instruction in Grades 1-6 leads to greater subject matter achievement than the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction in Grades 1-2 or in Grades 1-4. This was interpreted as resulting from the better grasp of English which the students had if it was used as the medium from Grades 1-6 (Davis, 1967, p. 84).

Further research is needed in the Philippines on many questions in teaching English as a second language: (1) Facts about dropouts and literacy in the lower grades are related to the validity of a program for enriching lower-grade curriculum in the mother tongue. (2) Transfer of learning from one language to another shows the practical effect on classroom achievement of learning in three languages, but no local study has been made of the effect on personality when a child is given an intimate acquaintance with three cultures. (3) The mother tongue has played almost a non-existent role in formal education, perhaps forcing a speaker to fill gaps in thought with another language, as the educated Filipino adult now mixes languages in informal conversation. Or the lack of attention to the first language may encourage the giving of first-language attributes to a later language, and results in the mixing of two or three languages. This suggests the need for investigating the effect of fuller use of the home language in school (PCLS, 1967, Pt. II).

Summary. The paucity of basic research on teaching English as a second language in the Pacific area except in the Philippines, points out the need for research to be carried on in multi-cultural settings to validate the assumptions on which a second language is being taught. The question might well be raised: Is it possible to validate a particular approach or curriculum across cultures?

The broad-scale study in the Philippines offers procedural ideas, sources of assistance and research leads that should be useful to a developing country facing similar problems in language teaching.

The theoretical approach and the materials developed by Dykstra (1967) offer leads which would be applicable both in the Philippines and the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. While both the Tate and Dykstra materials might be called regional, the former uses a piecemeal drill approach whereas the latter uses the meaningful communication approach.

Both the Dykstra materials and the Curriculum Research materials emphasize the use of what research has told us about the importance of meaning, of active rather than passive production, and of an interesting variety of activities and audio-visual aids. The Curriculum Research materials, however, aim to make use of the Ponapean language and culture to develop language and cognitive abilities but are limited by the dearth of published materials in Ponapean.

Recommendations for Further Research in Second Language Teaching. The review of related literature and research included in this chapter shows very clearly that significant shifts in the theory and practice of second language teaching are in process in widely separated geographic areas of the world. These changes include (1) a shift from theory and practice based on mechanistic S-R learning theory to a meaningful communication approach; (2) the incorporation of the findings of the psycholinguists concerning the importance of meaning and of active practice of novel utterances; (3) the recognition that an audiolingual approach is not a method but may be applied to either #1 or #2 above; (4) an acceptance of the importance but possible modification in timing of sequencing - aural comprehension, oral production, reading, and writing; (5) an acceptance of the importance of a purposeful, meaningful, situational approach requiring individual and small group interaction and training in listening comprehension to accomplish the purposes; (6) a recognition of the need to check continually on comprehension; (7) a recognition of the need for varied and interesting classroom activities, audio-visual materials, and teaching aids to stimulate interest and develop meaning; (8) an acceptance of the need for feedback and evaluation procedures; and (9) a recognition of the deeply embedded complex psychological factors in a bilingual situation which affect the child's self image, his acceptance of an ability to communicate in school, and his ability to make a constructive adjustment in the majority culture.

There is urgent need for ongitudinal research on the use in the school program of the child's early experiences in the mother tongue to develop language aptitude and cognitive abilities. In nations where there are many languages and dialects, can a common core curriculum in the second language making use of culture and language universals be used effectively? What place should the vernacular play in such a program? How can the teachers be trained and helped to make the necessary adaptations to the local cultures and languages? What research is essential in order to know the key things about the various cultures and languages in a multi-culture and multi-language country?

Longitudinal investigations of problems involved in the shifts in theory and practice of second language teaching are greatly needed. They should be done in various parts of the world with inter-disciplinary staffing and might well be planned as part of a broad-scale longitudinal study. At the same time, longitudinal research by individual investigators with small groups and individuals is also needed.

RESEARCH IN BEGINNING READING

More than ten years ago, dissatisfaction with and criticism of beginning reading instruction in the schools was voiced by reading experts (Flesch, 1955; Terman and Walcutt, 1958). The advent of Sputnik in 1957 aroused public interest in the innovations recommended by the critics and led to a rash of experiments. Most of the beginning reading research was concerned with comparison of innovative methods and the traditional basal reader approach, to determine which particular method was superior.

All beginning reading programs must, of necessity, simplify initial steps for the child. "The differences among the methods seem to involve primarily what is simplified--stories, sentences, words, phoemes or letters" (Wittich, 1968). A brief discussion of the various methods may be helpful in understanding research findings.

The basal reader approach, used by most schools throughout the country, has as its major goal "mature reading" by the child right from the start of instruction. Sometimes called the Look-Say method, "vocabulary is introduced slowly and repeated often. Vocabulary control is based on frequency of usage rather than on regularity of sound-symbol relationships. Phonic analysis is introduced gradually and usually only after some sight words have been taught. Emphasis from the beginning is placed not only on word recognition but on comprehension and interpretation of what is read. Silent reading is emphasized early in the program. The various reading skills are introduced and developed systematically" (Bond and Dykstra, 1967, p. 45). Although basal reading systems vary, most of them are similar to the description given herein.

Most reading research is concerned with comparing some type of code-breaking method with the basal reading method. The stronger decoding programs which concentrate on early mastery of the relationship between sounds and symbols, as opposed to emphasis on content and comprehension, may be generally classified as discussed in the following pages.

Special Phonics Systems. There are numerous published systems, many designed to supplement the basal readers. Most of these begin with generalizations about the sounds of letters which are then applied to the pronunciation of specific syllables and words (Durkin, 1962). This is a synthetic process, beginning with parts of words which are later combined into whole words (Wittich, 1968, p. 78).

Most phonic systems are very much alike, although they may claim to be different. One system may use a larger vocabulary than another, some systems may use a purely analytic approach, i.e., working from whole words to parts, and some programs make use of both analytic and synthetic approaches. There is variation in the content, some introducing folk tales as early as the first grade; others delaying the reading of stories until there is partial mastery of the code (Chall, 1967).

The Linguistic Approach. There is disagreement among linguists as to criteria to be applied to a true linguistic approach, but Bond and Dykstra list the following characteristics included in most such programs: (1) There is an early introduction to letters, and knowledge of letter names and the ability to recognize letters are considered prerequisite skills for reading instruction. (2) Sound-symbol relationships are taught through careful sequencing of word patterns. Words with high sound-symbol regularity are taught first and the child is led to discover the sound-symbol relationships which exist. In many cases, the child is encouraged to use sound-symbol relationships as the basic word recognition technique by withholding from him such clues as pictures and word length. (3) In many cases, there is less emphasis on understanding and comprehension in the early stages. Reading is considered a process of translating graphic symbols into sounds and primary attention is paid to helping the child learn the decoding system (Bond and Dykstra, 1967, p. 46).

Modified Alphabets. There are at least four modified alphabet systems being used in the United States in experimental studies but the most popular is i.t.a (Initial Teaching Alphabet) designed by Sir James Pitman in England. This system has forty-four characters, each representing a single phoneme. This permits spelling to be regularized and only lower-case letters are used. Although proponents of i.t.a. claim that their alphabet may be used with any method of teaching, the consistent alphabet simplifies phonic presentation and phonics may be introduced very early (Downing, 1964). In the United States, the use of i.t.a. places early emphasis on phonics, includes a wide range of reading material, and introduces spelling and handwriting at an early stage (Mazurkiewicz and Tanyzer, 1964- rev. 1966).

The "Unifon Sound Alphabet" consists of a forty-phoneme alphabet without lower-and upper-case distinction. This system was devised to reform spelling and not for the teaching of beginning reading but some teachers have felt it to be useful and have experimented with it. UNIFON, as a separate reading system, has been found to make excessive demands on children, in contrast to i.t.a., which has been designed to lead to easy transition to TO (traditional orthography) (Wittich, 1968).

In the "Diacritical Marking System," designed by Fry, are added to regular letters to "preserve basic word form." As the reading habit develops, the marks can be eliminated (Fry, 1964).

A fourth modified alphabet is Words in Color, by Gattegno. Traditional spelling is adhered to but the reader learns that a sound is always represented by one color regardless of spelling (Gattegno, 1962).

The Responsive Environment Program. O. K. Moore's "talking typewriter," which has received a great deal of publicity, is included with the code-breaking systems, since the child begins by learning letters of the alphabet and then goes to words and then sentences. Children spell the words instead of sounding them out (Chall, 1967).

In addition to the code-breaking programs described above, individualized reading programs are receiving a great deal of attention. Although the idea of individualized instruction is not new, "the contributions of dynamic psychology have extended the concept far beyond the earlier plans which permitted children to progress at their own rates" (Wittich, 1968, p. 88). According to Nila Banton Smith, individualized instruction "is interested not only in a child's reading achievement but also in his interest in reading, his attitude toward reading, and his personal self-esteem and satisfaction in being able to read" (Smith, 1965, p. 378).

The Language-Experience Approach. In this method, the child dictates "stories" to the teacher, who records them, sometimes on charts for the group to talk about and read, then on paper for the author to learn to read. Skills are taught by calling the child's attention to "letter forms and words that are alike or begin and end in the same way." Children often illustrate their own material. As the child progresses, the teacher corrects spelling errors, directs attention to the relationship between sounds and letters, makes children aware of problems of punctuation and capitalization, and gives training in word recognition (Stauffer, 1965).

Technological Innovations. Many programmed materials have been developed. Some use texts while others make use of machines. The majority of programs utilize a linguistic or a phonics approach and may, therefore, be included under the code-emphasis methodology. The effect of the innovations depends on the scale of operation and the type of machine or text used. Their use is too recent to allow any valid conclusions (Wittich, 1968).

Some other new tools available are computers, centralized tape libraries, closed-circuit TV systems, electronic teaching machines and a flexible open-circuit educational TV network.

ANALYSIS OF SOME RESEARCH PROJECTS

Jeanne Chall's recent book, Learning to Read: The Great Debate, is the result of a three-year study of available research in beginning reading from 1910 to 1965. The author examined and analyzed published studies, she interviewed proponents of varying systems and she visited many classrooms in the United States and in England. She believed that the conflicting findings of various investigations were due to the diversity of measures that were tested and synthesized the reported research by tabulating the reports in terms of eight measures of reading ability, grade by grade. Her conclusions often differed from the conclusions of the authors since she gave "priority to the authors' findings rather than to their conclusions which were often at variance with the actual test results" (Chall, 1967, p. 104).

Chall's conclusions: (1) The author found no evidence that any one decoding method was superior to other code-emphasis methods. (2) She concluded that the first step in learning to read is to master the "process of reading," by learning the printed code. (3) There is no evidence that either a code or a meaning emphasis fosters greater love of reading or is more interesting to children. (4) Early stress on code learning not only produces better word recognition and spelling, but also makes it easier for the child eventually to read with understanding, at least up to the beginning of the fourth grade, after which point there is practically no evidence. (5) There is some experimental evidence that children of below-average and average intelligence and children of lower socioeconomic background do better with an early code emphasis. (6) The correlational studies support the experimental finding that an initial code emphasis produces better readers and spellers. They show a significant relationship between ability to recognize letters and give the sounds they represent and reading achievement. Although knowledge of letters and their sound values does not assure success in reading, it does appear to be a necessary condition for success. In fact, it seems to be more essential for success in the early stages of reading than high intelligence and good oral language ability. (7) There is some evidence that an initial reading method emphasizing "word", "natural," or "speeded" reading produces more serious failures than one emphasizing the code. (8) Clinical studies of pupils with reading problems indicate that both code and meaning approaches produce reading failures. (9) Clinical reports give evidence that a stronger code emphasis would help prevent reading failure, although it could never eliminate it entirely. (10) Very little of the research evidence tells us about differences in results with the two kinds of approaches at the end of the fourth grade and beyond. We might hypothesize, however, that whether the code emphasis keeps its advantage in the intermediate or upper elementary grades and beyond depends on how reading is taught in these grades. If the reading programs do not put enough stress on language and vocabulary growth and provide sufficiently challenging reading materials, the early advantages may be dissipated (Chall, 1967, pp. 83-85.)

U. S. Office of Education First Grade Studies. Twenty-seven individual first-grade reading studies were begun in the school year 1964-1965. The aim was to find an answer to three basic questions: (1) To what extent are various pupil, teacher, class, school and community characteristics related to pupil achievement in first-grade reading and spelling? (2) Which of the many approaches to initial reading instruction produces superior reading and spelling achievement at the end of the first grade? (3) Is any program uniquely effective or ineffective for pupils with high or low readiness for reading?

The instructional approaches evaluated included Basal, Basal plus Phonics, i.t.a., Linguistic, Language Experience and Phonic/Linguistic. Identical information was gathered in each project concerning teacher, school, and community characteristics and common experimental guidelines were followed in all 27 studies (Bond and Dykstra, 1967).

Attempts to answer the first question gave evidence that (1) the variation in pupil success can be accounted for by the attributes brought to the learning situation. (2) Knowledge of letter names gained prior to initial instruction alone would account for approximately 25 to 36 per cent of the variation in reading ability found at the end of the year under the various methods of instruction used in the study. (3) A child who has the ability to read phonetically regular words also has skill in reading words of high utility even though these latter words may be highly irregular.

Conclusions as to methodology seemed to favor the decoding methods although the authors state that "No one approach is so distinctly better in all situations and respects than the others that it should be considered the one best method and the one to be used exclusively" (p. 123). Elsewhere in their conclusions, the authors state (1) Word study skills must be emphasized and taught systematically regardless of what approach to initial reading instruction is used. (2) Combinations of programs, such as basal program with supplementary phonics materials, often are superior to single approaches. (3) Innovative programs such as Linguistic readers are especially effective in the word recognition area. (4) It is necessary for teachers to make differential expectations concerning mean achievement of boys and girls. (5) Reading programs are not equally effective in all situations. Evidently, factors other than method, within a particular learning situation, influence pupil success in reading. (6) Reading achievement is related to other characteristics in addition to those investigated in the study. (7) Pupils taught to read by means of a transitional alphabet such as i.t.a. may experience greater difficulty making the transition to traditional orthography in spelling than they do in reading. Longitudinal information is necessary to study this problem. (8) Future research might well center on teacher and learning situation characteristics rather than method and materials. To improve reading instruction, it is necessary to train better teachers of reading rather than to expect a panacea in the form of materials. (9) The expectation of pupil accomplishment in initial reading instruction probably should be raised. Programs which introduced words at a more rapid pace tended to produce pupils with superior word recognition abilities at the end of the first grade. (10) Indications are that the initial reading vocabulary should be selected with a greater balance between phonetically regular words and high utility words. (11) A writing component is likely to be an effective addition to a primary reading program. This appears helpful to the pupil in learning sound-symbol relationships. (12) The relative success of the non-basal programs compared to the basal programs indicates that reading instruction can be improved.

Conclusions as to whether or not there was a differential treatment effect for pupils of varying levels of readiness showed very few, if any, significant differences in treatment by intelligence, treatment by auditory discrimination, or treatment by letter knowledge interaction effects (Bond and Dykstra, 1968).

Fourteen of the twenty-seven U.S. Office of Education studies were extended through the second and third grades. Of the few second grade results reported to date, results were not always consistent; many were inconclusive. Perhaps if we can have information on these studies through grades V and VI, more valid results will be available (Wittich, 1968, p. 104).

RESEARCH IN ALLIED FIELDS

Sociology. Sociologists have noted the relationships between academic success and deviant cultural or language patterns; and racial, ethnic, and social-class group patterns of behavior and thought which conflict with common middle-class-oriented educational goals (Spache, 1968, p. 241). They point out that in any culturally handicapped group, there may be as many members who show positive and constructive attitudes toward educational goals as there are those who exhibit indifference, ambivalence or negativism. Efforts to identify individuals within the group who can be motivated to move upward is an obligation devolving upon teachers of reading, more than any other educators, since reading is the foundation of other instruction.

The need to study the "real or imagined community restraints and pressures as they are perceived by teachers and the teachers' perceptions of the role expected of him by parents and by other teachers" is especially important in Micronesia, where so little is known of cultural and perceptual sets of the learners and the community.

There have been some interesting developments in the field of child development. The impact of pre-nursery, nursery and kindergarten programs have shifted some aspects of training in formal school skills downward. There is no unanimity on the subject of early training although most sociologists agree that growth in cognition can start at a very early age, provided that formal lessons are not insisted upon.

The same disagreement prevails on the subject of reading "readiness." From earlier conclusions listed in this paper, there was no significant correlation of "readiness" with any of the other learning factors (Bond and Dykstra, 1967). Some observers believe that readiness can be created rather than awaited (Jablonsky, 1968; Gotkin and Caudle, n.d.).

In the area of cognition, comprehension is considered a cognitive or information-processing system, so that research in this area would be directly applicable to the teaching of reading. The stages of development of comprehension are as yet unknown but work is in progress on the chronology of presentation, the best training sequences and the most efficient modes of presentation (Spache, 1968, p. 257).

Linguistics. One group of linguists (Fries et al.) believes that beginning reading is a simple process of decoding written graphemes into their equivalent phonemes. This belief has led to the production of linguistic readers mentioned earlier. The upper levels or broader aims of reading are considered as a part of thinking rather than as a part of reading. There is little research to bear out these hypotheses and much disagreement with the above views. Statements that "writing is speech put down on paper" have been difficult to demonstrate scientifically.

A very different approach to reading may follow the publication of Chomsky's Syntactic Structures (1957) and Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965). This theory "stresses the fact that a good explanatory grammar of a language requires a set of explicit syntactic rules which generate sentences of that language together with grammatical descriptions of the generated sentences and such a set of rules will reveal sentences to have deep structures on which semantic rules operate and surface representations which are mapped out by phonological rules. The phonological and graphemic surface features of sentences are automatic and superficial and contribute nothing to the understanding of sentences. Sentences may be understood correctly only if the listener or reader knows the deep underlying elements and only if he understands the deep relationships among these elements." (Wardhaugh, 1968).

Psycholinguistics. Use of the cloze procedure has led to some interesting explorations of the way in which a reader derives meaning of the word from context. The use of the cloze technique, involving the deletion of words from printed passages, has proved useful as a testing device, and has also been used successfully as a teaching device. In addition to using the device for testing reading comprehension, it has also been used to test listening comprehension. It has also been used to measure proficiency in a second language. Space does not permit a listing of all the results to date but researchers believe that the experiments may well have direct implications for "vocabulary teaching," for analyzing the development of the cognitive processes underlying comprehension, for the extent and kind of training upon words of structural or lexical function, for adapting instruction to our knowledge of the fundamental differences between the encoding processes, for new methods of evaluating the reading difficulty of many types of instruction and other materials, for further study of the process of deriving meaning from context, for new approaches to the measurement of comprehension, and for many other facets of reading (Spache, 1968, p. 272).

Educational Psychology. This discipline is at present involved in studying the various aspects of programmed learning, and the sequence and inter-relatedness of skills, which remain to be described and defined more objectively (Eichholz and Barbe, 1961). It is also concerned with the type of reinforcement necessary to maintain a high level of response in middle class and lower class children (Zigler and Kanzer, 1962).

One factor found to influence research studies is the superiority of girls over boys in reading in Grades I through VIII. Preston found that this was not true of German children. His study showed that German boys were superior to girls (Preston, 1962). This factor was mentioned earlier in the conclusions of Bond and Dykstra.

Clinical Psychology. Certain auditory skills have been found to be significant for reading achievement, while others are relatively unimportant (Dykstra, 1966; Birch and Belmont, 1964). Instructional approaches to reading make different demands on auditory skills and research is needed to help the teacher assess pupil needs and abilities in the area of listening comprehension (Spache, p. 289).

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING READING IN MICRONESIA

The Teacher. Every research investigation stressed the importance of the teacher as a key factor, more important than method, material or media (Clymer, 1967) Chall and Feldman found several characteristics of teachers which were signigicantly associated with reading achievement at the end of the first grade--"Teacher competence, a thinking approach to learning, a sound-symbol emphasis in reading, and using appropriate level of lessons" (Chall and Feldman, p. 574).

Most teachers in the Trust Territory, American or Micronesian, have not received systematic instruction in teaching reading. The material used in both experimental and control schools is linguistically oriented, with the desired code-breaking characteristics, and seems to be fairly successful where the teacher understands the material and has the time to teach it.

Special reading courses and in-service training should be given to supplement the teachers' manuals.

With regard to the teaching of reading in the native language, it is hoped that the teachers' knowledge of sound-symbol relationship in English might lead to greater awareness of such relationships in the native language but there is no evidence of such a transference. Most native speakers of a language are unaware of the code of their own language and need help in learning meaningful relationships. In order to prepare valid lessons for the teaching of reading in the native language, an objective which is desirable not only to create pride of identity with the native culture, but also to make easier the transition in learning to read English, it would be necessary to have the help of specialists in preparing beginning reading lessons with a code-breaking emphasis.

CRAFT, a three-year project studying two major approaches, found that teacher use of time allotted to actual reading rather than to supportive activities showed positive correlation with reading achievement for all methods combined (Harris and Serwer, Fall, 1966). It is obvious that an increase in the amount of instructional time for teaching reading would be of benefit.

Reading Readiness. "Current thought and practice support the view that for children for whom bilingualism presents problems, basic skills and concepts should first be taught in their native tongues before or at least during the time that a second language is being learned" (Modiano, 1967 and 1968).

Differences among children of the same chronological age have always been a challenge to the schools (Durkin, 1968). In a program for the Mexican-American community, the Malabar Street School is working with three to five year olds in order to develop linguistic ability to the point of readiness for formal learning in kindergarten. The school believes that children at very young ages can be taught skills and concepts usually reserved for older grades (Youth Opportunities Foundation, 1966).

Even though pre-school programs may not be feasible for Micronesia, current research is agreed that a knowledge of the alphabet and beginning sounds is predictive of later reading achievement. It is urged that children be taught in first grade to recognize the letters of the alphabet, to write them and to understand their phonetic equivalents, and to read their own names, the names of other children in the class, as well as other words and numbers.

Experimental Curriculum Materials and Reading. One of the major emphases in the experimental curriculum material is on listening comprehension. There is evidence to show a correlation between listening comprehension and reading comprehension, as mentioned earlier in this paper. Will later tests show this to be true in student achievement?

Chall and others studying material for children believe that fairy tales and folk tales have great appeal for all children. This is the type of material used in the experimental curriculum materials. Empirically, it is successful in arousing the interest of the students. Will it have a beneficial effect on their skills in speaking and reading English?

Pattern practice has been written with the concept of the "deep" structure of underlying meaning in mind. Will such attention to syntactic units help children catch on faster to how the language works? Since "Children remember meaningful utterances better than pattern practice," all such practice has been set in as meaningful a setting as possible, avoiding repetitious utterances (McCullough, 1968, p. 333).

Traditional plans of school and classroom organization are being replaced by various innovative plans. Micronesia offers a fruitful field for exploration of all areas of child development, language skills and continuing evaluation.

CHAPTER 4

CURRENT STATUS STUDY

A SURVEY OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS AND TEACHER METHODOLOGY IN A SAMPLING OF SCHOOLS, GRADES 1-12, IN PONAPE DISTRICT

This survey was made in the spring of 1967, using a questionnaire approach.

At that time the population of Ponape District was about 19,000. The number of public elementary schools was 31; of public senior high schools two. The number of children in public elementary schools was 4,193; in public senior high schools about 600.

The number of elementary school teachers was 158 Micronesian, 21 Americans, and 42 Peace Corps Volunteers. At the senior high school level the number was 16 Micronesian teachers, 14 American teachers, and 8 Peace Corps Volunteers.

The range of formal schooling for the elementary Micronesian teachers was perhaps Grade 6 to college graduate. There was only one of the latter in this survey. All the high school teachers were college graduates and the majority were Americans.

Purpose of the Survey. As part of the plan for curriculum research and development in the English language communication skills for Ponape District Schools, Grades 1-12, a current status study was projected. The purpose of this study was to furnish an objective basis for determining the action needed to bring (1) the instructional materials in the schools, (2) teacher methodology, and (3) teacher competence in English language communication skills up to a satisfactory level. This section deals with Parts 1 and 2 of the current status study.

Schools and Teachers. The schools included in the survey of instructional materials and teacher methodology were those schools selected as a sampling representative of the schools of Ponape District. They included both the schools identified in the research design as experimental schools and those identified as control schools. The factors considered in the selection of these schools as a sampling are discussed in another section of the substantive report.

Listed in Table 1 are the schools and the number of teachers involved in Parts 1 and 2 of the current status study.

Ohmine School was opened as a new building in January, 1967. During the remainder of the school year it served as an annex to Kolonia Elementary School. Grades 1-4 were located at Ohmine, and Grades 5-8 at Kolonia. In 1967-68, reorganization and redistricting made them completely separate, self contained schools.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS IN THE SURVEY

Experimental	Micro. Tchrs.	Amer. Tchrs.		Micro. Tchrs.	Amer. Tchrs.
Sekere Elementary, Gr. 1-8 (Rural)	4	2	Mand Elementary Grade 1-8	4	
Pehleng Elementary Gr. 1-8 (Rural)	3	1	Kinakapw Elementary Gr. 1-8 (Rural)	3	1
Kolonia-Ohmine Gr. 1-8 (District Center)	20	7	(In 1967-68 Ohmine was split from Kolonia.)		
Pacific Island Central (Ponape High School) Gr. 9-12 (District Center)	(Eng.)	5	(In 1967-68 the high school English classes were to be randomized between control and experimental groups)		
Total	27	15	Total	7	1
Grand total of teachers in survey:		50			

Survey Form. The questionnaire (see Appendix B) devised to obtain information regarding the instructional materials and teacher methodology in the schools surveyed was pilot tested in the Catholic Mission School, using some native Ponapean speakers and some native English speakers. The instructions were translated into Ponapean for the native Ponapean speakers. The person who administered the questionnaire was a bilingual Ponapean. After administering the questionnaire, it was revised in the light of reactions from the teachers who were pilot tested.

Administration of the questionnaire to the teachers included in this report was done by the same bilingual Ponapean who did the pilot testing.

School Policies Reflected in the Study. The district school policy had been to have all English classes taught by native speakers of English, as far as possible. With the coming of Peace Corps Volunteers in the fall of 1966, this goal came close to realization.

The native speaker, an American, had also served as grade level chairman in Kolonia and Ohmine Schools with the responsibility of helping the Micronesian teachers plan for instruction, use appropriate instructional materials, and employ wound methodology. Theoretically this should contribute to good use of available instructional materials. Actually the effectiveness of this approach was greatly affected by the background and understanding of the Micronesian teachers who ranged from Grade 6 to college graduates. The effectiveness was also limited by the limited preparation for teaching of some American teachers.

The Trust Territory policy had been to start the teaching of English in Grade 1, using the vernacular when necessary for understanding, and gradually shifting all instruction into English by the end of Grade 8. This policy had been applied differently in different schools, but the result had been (1) lack of planned teaching of literacy in the vernacular in most schools; (2) teaching reading and writing before aurally comprehending and speaking English in some schools; and (3) teaching in English by Micronesians whose own pattern of English speech was faulty. This tended to detract from the pattern of speech which the native speaker of English was trying to establish.

Grouping Practices and Teacher Assignment. In the district center, Kolonia, the elementary school children were grouped heterogeneously in Grades 1-4 with several sections of a class at each grade level. In Grades 5-8 they were grouped homogeneously to a certain extent with proficiency in English as a major criterion for grouping. Within this general pattern there was a certain amount of departmentalization. Not only did native speakers of English teach the English classes, but in the upper grades there was some departmentalization of Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies.

At Pacific Islands Central School, the students in Grade 9 were grouped homogeneously; in Grades 10-12 heterogeneously. This picture changed in 1967-68, with homogeneous grouping continuing into Grade 10.

In the rural schools the pupil population was not large enough, in many schools, to permit organization on the basis of one grade level per class. In some schools the grouping was done on the basis of combined grades, such as Grades 3-4 together. In other schools the main basis of organization for instruction was the subject matter competence of the teacher. A particular teacher took responsibility for classes in his strong areas over a range of grades which might include both lower and upper grades, depending on the teacher's English proficiency and subject matter strength.

Because of the range of proficiency in English among the teachers, there was much variation among the schools as to the amount of teaching done in Ponapean. Notwithstanding the Trust Territory policy of instruction in English, the teachers could only work in the language in which they had sufficient control to teach. Their responses to the questionnaire and in discussion indicated their awareness (1) of the significant effect which their own English patterns had on the students whom they served as models; and (2) of the relationship between the use of English as the medium of instruction in other subjects and in the English period. In most of the answers to the questionnaire, teachers identified themselves as teachers of English even though a native American speaker taught the English lessons.

Teaching Ponapean. Only four teachers of the fifty involved in the survey indicated that they taught Ponapean, although the questionnaire was organized to provide equal opportunity to describe instruction carried on in Ponapean and in English.

Two of these four taught in the primary grades and appeared to use a language arts approach in Ponapean comparable to that used with native speakers in English. They used Ponapean charts centered on things in the children's experience; pictures of everyday things such as birds, fish, houses, and foods; drill cards; charts about such things as care of the body and teeth; and booklets in Ponapean. The communication skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing were taught.

One of the four taught in Grades 3-4 and used pamphlets on science written in Ponapean for teaching reading and writing Ponapean.

The last of the four taught in upper grades in a period specifically designed to develop literacy in the vernacular. He used The Senyavin Times, a bilingual newspaper published weekly in Ponape. Some students read aloud in Ponapean and others explained in English. Discussion was carried on in Ponapean. The teacher read aloud in Ponapean and the students practiced writing in Ponapean. Thus listening, speaking, reading, and writing in Ponapean were taught.

Instructional Materials for Teaching English and other Subjects. Significant facts substantiated by the survey were (1) there was a very meager number of books and other instructional materials available in schools, especially outside the district center; (2) there were not enough copies even of adopted texts to make them available in all the schools; (3) in many instances only the teacher had a book and must depend on copying lessons on the chalkboard, reading the lesson to the class, lecturing or some other means of conveying the content to the class; and (4) with the Micronesian teacher's limited academic background and limited proficiency in teaching methodology, he quite often did not know what to teach or how to teach and either dismissed his class or "baby sat" until time to send the children home.

In the district center there were enough copies of adopted texts for a complete class to use by (1) passing the books from one class to another for that particular subject or (2) regrouping the children for that subject.

It was hoped that in 1967-68 there would be enough books available in the rural schools to follow a similar pattern in grouping for instruction.

Table 2 shows the number of times that teachers reported the use of some books as a text. It should be noted that some teachers used more than one text for the teaching of Reading; hence the number of reports that a certain book was used as a text (73) exceeds the number of teachers in the survey (50). Other than in Reading, the use of a text ran comparatively low.

Teachers were asked to indicate by checking on the form which of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) a particular book was used for. In English 66 per cent use was made of the text for all four skills, indicating awareness of the inter-relatedness of the language skills. In Mathematics, Social Studies, and Science 50 per cent use was made of the texts for all four language skills. Strangely, only 33 per cent use was made of the Reading text for all four skills, indicating a lack of awareness of inter-relatedness which needed to be corrected.

The most frequently used texts are listed with the percentage of use by teachers who reported using texts. Except in Reading the use ran comparatively low.

The number of other texts used refers to all the other books listed as used to structure the program, and indicated the paucity of books.

TABLE 2

NUMBER AND USE OF TEXTBOOKS

Subject	No. Reports Test is Used	Per Cent Used for 4 Skills*	Most Used Text	Per Cent Used by Text Users	No. Other Texts Used
Reading	73	33	Ginn Basic Reading Program	78	13
English	38	66	English This Way English Lang. Services	25	21
Mathematics	32	50	Seeing Through Arithmetic, Scott Foresman	44	11
Social Studies	28	50	The First People	14	20
Science	25	50	Science Life, Macmillan	28	12
Spelling	7	71	Spelling and Using Words, Silver Burdett	43	2
Handwriting	0				

*Percentage of use made for teaching the skills of listening, speaking, reading as compared to the number of reports that a text was used.

In Table 3 the use of instructional materials other than books is summarized. The number of reports of the use of a particular instructional material represents the number of times the various kinds of instructional material in that category were reported as used. Since one teacher might report using several items in a category, the number of reports of use exceeded the number of teachers (50) included in the survey in two categories. The percentage of use made of each category of teaching

TABLE 3

USE OF OTHER INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Materials	No. Reports of Use	Per Cent used for 4 Com. Skills	Most Used Kinds	No. not Using Mat.
Real Objects	75	30	Classroom Objects Outdoors Objects Playthings School Equipment Clothes, Jewelry Body Parts	28
Pupil Activities	67	38	Recreation Act. & Making Story of Act. Songs, Dances, Records Dramatization Experiments Art.Act. Telling Stories Writing Stories Reading Stories Simple Research Group Discussion Oral Reports Cleanliness Act. Dialogues Rhyming	31
Pictures	45	42	Magazine Pix. Tchr.-made Pix.	28

TABLE 3 (cont.)

Materials	No. Reports of Use	Per Cent used for 4 Com. Skills	Most Used Kinds	No. not Using Mat.
Pictures (cont.)			Puzzles, Maps Action Pix. Name & Act. Pix. for Flannel Bd. Pix. of Objects in Environment Pix. to Illustrate Subject Matter	
Tchr.-made Aids	42	49	Charts, Flash Cards Posters, Flannel Bd. Puppets Movie roll Maps First Aid Bk. Pix. of Story by Tchr.	42
Charts	38	34	Picture Reading Science Math Pix-Word Word Analysis Objects in Environment	29
Teachers' Guides	28	46	Ginn Basic Rdr. Some had Guide. Some followed textbook.	
	18	61	Math. Text Guide	

TABLE 3 (cont.)

Materials	No. Reports of Use	Per Cent used for 4 Com. Skills	Most Used Kinds	No. not Using Mat.
Teachers' Guides (cont.)	15	273	TESL-Philippines Most frequent. Used several.	15
Workbooks	21	100	Ginn Basic Rdr. Some had Tchr. Ed. only. Copied exercises.	27
Pupil-made Aids	19	37	Word & Number Cards Pix. of Stories, Spelling words, trips Clay objects Class newspapers Stories & plays	14
Drill Cards	15	33	English Flash Cards Name & Pix. of Object Cards Spelling, Grammar Arithmetic Facts	38
Films	20	31	Science, Soc. Stud. Personal Responsibility	39
Filmstrips	12	63	Soc. Stud., Science Agric., Family Living Dictionary Usage	41

material for teaching the four communication skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as compared to the number of reports that the material was used also runs very high in two categories. Again this is because teachers reported using several different kinds of teaching materials in the same category to teach the four communication skills.

The most revealing part of the information contained in Table 3 is in the column headed Number not Using Material. The figures in this column show the large number of teachers who made no use of the basic kinds of teaching materials listed. Except in two categories, over half of the teachers did not use the materials listed.

The questionnaires returned by the American teachers and the better Micronesian teachers accounted for most of the use of these instructional materials. This indicates an extremely low level of instructional materials in well over half of the elementary classrooms. It shows the need both to provide more instructional materials and to show teachers how to use them.

It should be noted that the lack of electricity in the rural schools made the use of films and filmstrips impossible except in the district center.

Some Generalizations on Instructional Materials. It is particularly noteworthy that the textbooks, workbooks, teachers' guides, films, and filmstrips were almost all oriented to middle class American culture. While some efforts had been made to develop materials in the vernaculars and teaching materials suited to the Micronesian cultures, these efforts had been cut off by the interpretation of the policy of beginning to teach English in the first grade. The help needed by teachers, supervisors, and administrators to interpret and implement this policy constructively was not available, and therefore the promising efforts to develop suitable instructional materials were dropped in many cases.

The survey showed the paucity of any kind of published materials to serve the schools in Ponape District. However, many existing published materials would be unsuitable even if available, especially in the primary grades. The lack of depth in the teachers' background and preparation was also obvious. This interfered with the teachers' use of teaching aids and pupil activities which would be highly beneficial to the children.

Although the preprimers of the Ginn Basic Reading Program were not used until about Grade 3, maximum use was not made of the time prior to Grade 3 to establish aural comprehension and speaking in English, and reading and writing in the vernacular as readiness for reading in English.

The introduction of TESL theory and practice into the Trust Territory has helped to fill this vacuum. Adaptation of TESL theory to local situations and cultures is needed. Intensive teacher training is urgently needed to help teachers learn to use the instructional materials available in the environment, employing methodology based on sound principles of learning and suited to the maturity level of the children.

Work by faculty members was carried on under the leadership of the Kolonia and Ohmine Elementary School Principal during the summer of 1967 to develop detailed curriculum guides in the form of model lesson plans closely correlated with the textbooks selected for use in Science, Mathematics, and Social Studies. These textbooks were Today's Basic Science Series published by Harper and Row; Mathematics, Bks. 1-6, by Addison-Wesley; Reed's Social Studies Series on the Pacific, Gr. 6; and Homes around the World, by Ginn, for Grades 7-8. Courses were offered in summer session on "Modern Mathematics" and "The Experience Approach to Reading" by faculty from University of Hawaii.

The summer workshop under the University of Hawaii-U.S. Office of Education curriculum research grant was planned to help the teachers who would be working with the experimental curriculum in their classes in 1967-68 become familiar with the curriculum, with TESL theory and procedures, and with techniques for applying them.

Several College of Guam courses were also offered through the C.O.G. College of Continuing Education in the summer sessions of 1967 and 1968.

During the summer of 1968 the MTEC summer program was focused on supervised teaching experience at the cooperating teacher trainee level and the student teacher level. Plans are projected to continue this program in the summer of 1969 with part of the student teacher and cooperating teacher trainees specializing in TESL.

It was hoped that these cooperative efforts would result in more adequate instructional materials for Ponape District, and in more depth of teacher understanding of how to use these materials effectively.

CURRICULUM SEQUENCE IN LANGUAGE SKILL

It is generally accepted by specialists in Teaching English as a Second Language that the most effective sequence in teaching the four basic language skills is listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The learner should work on reading material which is already used competently in his speaking vocabulary. He should work on learning to speak what he has already heard many times and understands. To be asked to learn to read material which he is learning at the same time to speak and understand places too great a burden on the pupil and interferes with learning. Furthermore, if the child has already learned to comprehend, speak, and read in the vernacular, his understanding of the reading process can be transferred to learning to read a second language and help him to accomplish this task.

One part of the survey questionnaire was structured to find out what the teachers perceived to be the most effective sequence of teaching these basic language skills. This information would be significant in determining the soundness of the basic methodology used by the teachers.

In the questionnaire, the teachers were asked to number the order in which they thought the language communication skills should be taught.

The language skills in learning Ponapean were included in the list in order to find out the part which the teachers thought the vernacular should play in the program.

The Ponapean teachers placed learning the reading skills in English first; the writing skills in English second; the speaking skills in Ponapean third; and the listening skills in English fourth. This conflicts with the pattern recommended by TESL specialists.

The American teachers placed learning the listening skills in English first; the speaking skills in English second; the reading skills in English third; and the writing skills in English fourth. The sequence suggested by the American teachers probably resulted from their TESL training, as compared to the Ponapean teachers who had not been TESL trained.

When the data from the Ponapean and American teachers were combined the number of the American teachers was great enough to make the total of the two groups follow the sequence suggested by the American teachers. However, this did not change the pattern of methodology followed by the Ponapean teachers in any situation in which they were using English.

It is significant that the American teachers indicated no place in the sequence of language learning for the learning and use of Ponapean language skills. Possibly this resulted from the official policy of learning English from Grade 1 on, and the teachers' lack of depth in understanding how vernacular language communication skills can be developed concurrently with the beginning skills in English. This means that the American teachers left out of their instruction some very basic parts of the process of language learning. Unless the American teachers spoke adequate Ponapean, it would be necessary to work closely with the Ponapean teachers as a team to accomplish what needed to be done.

The fact that the Ponapean teachers listed the learning of speaking skills in Ponapean as third in the sequence indicated their awareness of the importance of developing skills in the Ponapean language somewhere in the process of learning communication skills. However, they lacked understanding of the most effective sequence and how to do the teaching job effectively.

Another facet of the problem of language learning in Ponape is the social imbeddedness of language which relates closely to social attitudes and social relationships with people of another language group. The social effects of focusing entirely on English and leaving out the teaching of the vernacular need to be examined closely. The effects on attitudes toward Ponapean culture, toward themselves as Ponapeans, and toward other people may be more important in the long run than the effect on soundness of TESL methodology.

KEY ENGLISH STRUCTURES AND SEQUENCE IN TEACHING

Specialists in Teaching English as a Second Language agree that there are certain key structures in English which must be taught in order to help the learner "catch on" to how the language works. A methodology which leaves this basic fact out of the planning for instruction is less effective than a methodology which uses the known key structures to focus instruction.

While there is not complete agreement among TESL experts regarding the degree to which strict sequencing is necessary, a certain amount of planned sequence seems to be needed, particularly at the primary grade level. This will permit the coordination of various kinds of teaching materials and aids to make maximum use of the communication skills learned up to that point. It will also facilitate the reinforcement of learning through carefully planned instruction.

One section of the survey questionnaire was intended to find out the degree to which recognized key English structures were used in planning for instruction; the degree to which a planned sequence was followed; and whether there was a common pattern used by all the teachers.

The group of Ponapean teachers, the group of American teachers, and the combined group of all the teachers in the sampling checked what approach they used from those listed. The approach most frequently used by all three groups was: "I select and make up a list of word and sentence forms in pre-planning for my teaching."

The American teachers checked the same number of times the statement: "I follow a general order but I use it in relation to the English language word and sentence forms and contrast in patterns needed in class work at the time."

From the statements most frequently checked, it seems clear that there was not a common pattern of English teaching used by all the teachers, whether American or Ponapean. There was not a set of key English structures nor sequence carefully designed and in common use by the teachers. To a significant degree, each teacher chose what he was going to teach and in what sequence. The exceptions to this statement were the teachers who followed the Philippine TESL Guide adapted for Ponape District and those who followed the text, English This Way.

For the teachers who had little or no training in TESL, it seems very doubtful that they would be able to teach language communication skills effectively in the "hit or miss" way they would work.

SURVEY OF METHODOLOGY

Some basic elements of methodology have appeared in the last two sections of this report. However, it seemed worthwhile to check on teachers' specific ideas as to what were good techniques and what were poor techniques. The application of their general concepts to what they actually did in the classroom with their pupils was the heart of their teaching and largely determined its quality.

In the survey questionnaire the teachers were asked to rate the techniques listed for teaching English according to the importance attached to them in their teaching. These techniques were listed in the four categories of listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

In setting up the techniques listed, the objective was to provide a range of techniques on a continuum of both the quality of learning and the amount of usage in a classroom to achieve the purposes of instruction. For example, toward the high end of the continuum might be beginning instruction with a meaningful situation; relating the lesson to the cultural milieu; using real objects to develop meaning and stimulate interest; dramatizing action words; involving the learner in doing and thinking so that he identifies with the learning situation; and using pictures, puppets, flannel boards and other teaching aids that require doing, thinking, talking, and relating meaning to language. At the same time, the modeling of the speech pattern by the teacher followed by repeated drills is important. These should be related to meaningful situations and should incorporate small variations which require the pupil to think rather than to repeat mechanically.

The teachers' thoughtful, purposeful selection of techniques to serve the needs of the class within a clearly defined and structured curriculum framework is basic to good teaching.

Summary of Survey of Methodology. Careful examination of the summary tables and comparison with grade level priority ratings and individual papers showed several important things about the teachers' choice of methodology in the sampling of Ponape District (See Appendix B, TABLES 24-28):

1. There was evidence in the data that the teachers tried to choose teaching techniques in terms of pupils' maturity and proficiency in English language skills.

2. The uncertainty of teachers regarding basic theoretical questions pertaining to the learning process detracted seriously from the entire instructional program.

3. The need for more adequate training of teachers was urgent.

4. The uncertainty of the teachers regarding the most effective use to make of Ponapean and/or American culture required work in depth to help solve the problem.

5. There was a need for making available in recorded form such cultural items as Ponapean legends.

6. Teachers did not understand the process of learning to read, and gave equally high priority to techniques that were in direct conflict.

7. Study and clarification of how the reading process and the techniques of learning to read operate were needed for the development of literacy in the vernacular and in a second language.

8. Teachers did not understand the complex process of learning to communicate ideas in writing and the laws of learning that apply.

Summary and Recommendations on Instructional Materials and Methodology. The dearth of published instructional materials in the schools of the Trust Territory left an enormous void to be filled. A larger budget was needed to accomplish this. However, middle-class American textbooks did not fit the cultural milieu. Instructional materials needed to be developed locally to fit the local situation, particularly for the lower school. Curriculum development projects were under way to meet this need. It was recommended that they be encouraged, given financial support, and the materials disseminated to the schools.

The Trust Territory policy of beginning the teaching of English in Grade 1 needed to be clarified. The development of literacy in the vernacular was also needed for several reasons, one being to serve as a foundation for the development of literacy in English. It was recommended that learning aural comprehension and speech skills in English proceed concurrently with learning to read and write in the vernacular, with the shift to reading and writing in English made in Grade 3 and up.

A carefully structured curriculum framework of English language structures to be taught and teachers' guides in how to teach them was needed.

There was need for a greatly increased teacher education program in the Trust Territory. Poorly educated, untrained teachers cannot do an adequate job, even with good curriculum materials, textbooks, and guides. It was recommended that the teacher education facilities within the Trust Territory be extended and enlarged; that intensive in-service programs, particularly in English, be required regularly; and that the scholarship program for study outside the Territory be expanded.

MICRONESIAN TEACHERS' PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH

Teaching and learning are demanding tasks in any man's language. However, when both the learning which one has done himself, and the teaching he is trying to do to help those caught with him in the same dilemma has in a large measure been in another man's language, the difficulty is compounded. Such is the situation which faces the Trust Territory's indigenous teachers. It is a credit to the Micronesian's ability to cope with his confusion that school teaching is the popular vocation that it is today throughout the Trust Territory.

Micronesia's nearly 30,000 school children (public and private) are served in the public schools by approximately 1000 indigenous teachers. A 1966 figure in a breakdown of elementary school teachers (public) shows 2.5 per cent as having some college or more; 10.0 per cent with 1 to 3 years of teacher training; 58.0 per cent with secondary schooling of 10 to 12 years; and 29.5 per cent with 9 years or less of formal schooling.* These figures, however, conceal the fact that for some the years of schooling are actually less. Those who would have been elementary school students during the war years have often been credited with 6 years of elementary school, whereas they may have been in attendance for only three years.

Although these teachers were not the primary teachers of English, they were expected in some schools to assist the native English speaking teacher in the teaching of English. Since the American teachers were occupied mainly with oral English it might also fall to the Micronesian teachers to teach reading and writing of English if these were to be taught at all. At some levels they were also expected to do all of their teaching of other subjects in English. It would be a rare exception if for any of these teachers English were a first language. Some in completing personal data sheets reported that it was spoken at home along with two other languages, the first and the second, making English the third.

An effort was made as part of the Curriculum Research Project Testing Program to make an assessment of the Micronesian teachers' proficiency in the use of English. Five groups of teachers provided the samples for this evaluation: two workshop groups meeting in Kolonia, Ponape in the summer of 1967, Group I composed of 23 teachers from the Experimental schools and Group II composed of 27 teachers from other public schools; Group III, 40 teachers actually teaching in the Experimental and Control schools at the time of the pre-testing of the students; Group IV, 34 teachers currently enrolled as Micronesian Teacher Education Center students from all the districts of the Trust Territory; and Group V, 41 MTEC students who took the Lado Test of Aural Comprehension in January of 1967 after four months of MTEC instruction.

The only instrument administered in conjunction with the CRC Testing Program was the CRC English Language Proficiency Test Level III Total Battery. Included in the evaluation, however, were available scores from the Lado Test of Aural Comprehension, and an instructor-constructed test referred to as the Taura Test. A detailed analysis was made of the taped speech of 25 Ponapean teachers attending the CRC Summer Session of 1967 to identify pronunciation problems. Reference groups were also considered as reported in Standardized English Language Test Results compiled by the Department of Education of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands for Seniors--Juniors--Scholarship Applicants, 1966-1967.

The results from each of the instruments confirmed the impression one receives when working with the Micronesian teachers that there is a wide range of ability in the use and understanding of English with the expected few at each extreme. The results are summarized in Table 4.

As noted in Table 4 the range in each of the samples included rather disappointingly low scores for teachers who are expected to use English

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*Attainments for teachers from Program Memorandum, Territories, U.S. Dept. of the Interior FY 1969(sic), p.11. Quoted in William Platt & Philip Sorenson, Planning for Education and Manpower in Micronesia, Menlo Park, California: Stanford Research Institute, 1967, p. 47.

in class and pursue their own study and preparation for classroom teaching in English. The higher means on both the Lado and Taura Tests were for the Group I teachers who were tested following an intensive summer session course and suggest that special training will help to overcome the deficiencies. However, it has been found that these gains are often dissipated rather quickly when the teachers are no longer involved in being trained themselves.

TABLE 4

MICRONESIAN TEACHERS' RANGE OF SCORES
ON THREE ENGLISH TESTS

Group	Instrument	Range	Mean	Standard Deviation
I. N=23	Lado T of AC	47-95*	78	12.4
II. N=27	Lado T of AC	50-90*	69	10.1
I. N=23	Taura Test	46-98*	84	13.4
II. N=27	Taura Test	31-89*	69	12.4
V. N=41	Lado T of AC	33-97*	65	12.3
III. N-40	CRC ELPT	122-211	174	20.8
IV. N=34	CRC ELPT	145-218	186	16.2

*These are percentage scores.
CRC are raw scores--total possible points 262.

Since the Lado test had been administered to more of the teachers in all five groups than any other one instrument, and since the Trust Territory high school juniors and seniors also took the Lado in 1966 and 1967, thus giving a student reference group, the proficiency norms which have been established for the Lado Test were selected to amplify the range of scores reported in Table 4.

Taking only the most recent Lado scores available for the subjects in the five groups gives a sample of 118 Micronesian teachers from across the Trust Territory. The range of scores is from 33 to 95 with a mean of 69.6 per cent. Percentile ranks have been computed at the grouping break points used by Lado to interpret what are reported as "proficiency norms" in the manual of the Test of Aural Comprehension. In this sample of 118 teachers a score of 89 is equivalent to a percentile rank of 94.9; a score of 79 is equivalent to a percentile rank of 76.2; and a score of 69 is equivalent to a percentile rank of 44.4.

Lado's lowest proficiency group are those whose scores fall at 69 or below. This includes the means of both Groups II and V and in the larger sample 44.4 per cent of the teachers have earned scores of below 69. Of this group Lado says: "Students in this range are not ready to undertake academic work in an environment where English is the medium of instruction. Those at the upper limit of this range may know enough English to travel, but they will not ordinarily be able to go into academic work until they have devoted some time exclusively to the study of English.

Of the 70 to 79 score group which includes the mean of Group I and 31.8 per cent of the larger sample he says: "Students in this range have a considerable handicap in understanding spoken English. They will not be able as a rule to carry successfully a full load of academic work in a college or university where competition is keen... a half load can be managed in most cases. The student should make provision to study English on a part-time basis to remove the handicap he still has."

Of the 80 to 89 score group which, as noted above, includes 19 per cent of the 118 he says: "Students in this range understand English sufficiently well to begin work in their fields of interest on a full-time basis. They will have difficulties with English. They will not be able to compete on equal terms with the native speakers of English, but they can carry a full load of academic work if they have the necessary background and are otherwise good students."

Those with scores of 90 and above are judged to "understand English without apparent difficulty." However, as other instruments and experience bear out, although these subjects may understand English without apparent difficulty, there are other areas of English which may provide trouble points for the teacher, both in his preparation and work in the Micronesian classroom and if he should go abroad to study. These are in the areas of reading comprehension, writing, and speaking of English.

The CRC English Language Proficiency Test includes reading comprehension and the writing of a composition as well as aural comprehension and oral production. Although the Lado and the CRC test show a moderate correlation (r=.442 sign. at .05 level) the CRC ELPT showed a better relationship to the instructor's ranking of MTEC teacher-students (Lado r=.467 sign. at .05 level, CRC r=.52 sign. near .01 level) in a class where writing as well as speaking English is considered. It was noted in Table 4 that with both groups III and IV the standard deviation on this test shows a greater variation among the students than is shown with the other two instruments which do not include reading comprehension, writing and oral production.

In the CRC ELPT the top score earned by the teachers is 218, 44 points below the total possible score, whereas on the aural tests some came near to 100 per cent. The higher mean score, higher top and lowest scores, earned by Group IV as compared with Group III might be attributed to the fact that there are students from other districts who do better in English than the Ponapeans who comprise the Group III sample. However, since others from districts who do more poorly should offset this difference, it may well be that the improvement in these teacher-students is due, as suggested in the CRC summer workshop group, to the intensive English study in which they are currently engaged. This may well be a credit to instruction given right in Micronesia, as none of this group have had college training whereas some of the Group III teachers have.

The only instrument which includes a sample of the subjects' written English is the CRC ELPT Level III subtest 8 which is a composition. The teachers of Group III have a mean score of 17.7 out of possible 50 points. The mean of the teacher-students of Group IV is 25.1 on this subtest. These low mean scores are indicative of the serious limitations which most of the teachers have in writing English.

Reference to the Trust Territory test results on the Test of English as a Foreign Language is pertinent to the comparison of proficiency in aural comprehension as compared with reading and writing of English. The percentiles on the TOEFL reported in Standardized English Language Test Results were based on a sample of 265 Trust Territory scholarship applicants tested in 1966 and 1967. These are, of course, not an actual sample of Micronesian teachers. However, they are potential teachers, some may in fact be teachers, and they have come through the same educational institutions from which the teachers have come. (On an average the scholarship applicants would be expected to do better than the teachers who had not yet been away for schooling.) The comparison norm group is that of 14,261 foreign students seeking admission to college in the United States.

A comparison of the means (see A in Table 5) of these two groups shows that the one subtest on which the Micronesian applicants exceed the other foreign students is Listening Comprehension. The relative superiority of the Trust Territory applicants in Listening Comprehension and the relative weaknesses in other areas is illustrated by taking one score group across the subtest breakdowns (see B in Table 5).

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF T.T. APPLICANTS AND OTHERS
ON SUBTESTS OF TOEFL

	Listening Comprehension		English Structure		Vocabulary		Reading Comprehen.		Writing Ability	
	T.T. Applicants	Others	TT	O	TT	O	TT	O	TT	O
A. Means:	50.5	48	45.2	49	43.3	47	40.6	48	41.6	48
B. %tiles Score 56	71.8	86	93.2	80	86.2	76	96.7	80	96.4	79

In B (Table 5) it will be noted that in Listening Comprehension only 71.8 per cent of the TT applicants fall below a score of 56, whereas 86 per cent of the foreign applicants are below this score. However, on English Structure 93.2 per cent of the TT applicants fall on or below this score while 80 per cent of the others do. Vocabulary is similar but on Reading comprehension and Writing Ability the difference is more marked with 96.7 and 96.4 per cent of the Trust Territory applicants falling below this score point compared with only 80 and 79 per cent of the others respectively.

This type of comparison with others who have also learned English as a second language suggests that our current stress in the Trust Territory may be too strongly oriented toward the oral-aural at the price of neglecting other areas of language learning. The Trust Territory people have the additional opportunity of hearing more English due to the American administration and English radio broadcasts.

Since none of the instruments reveal the speech difficulties which are prevalent among even the best educated of the Micronesian teachers, a detailed analysis of the taped speech of twenty-five teachers was made by TESL teachers during the CRC summer workshop in 1967. Each speaker was evaluated by three different instructors. The diagnostic sentences, the check sheet and the English pronunciation problems found among these Micronesian teachers are appended. (See Appendix C.)

Some effort has been made to assess how the teachers compare with students currently enrolled in public schools. A comparison of the means of the CRC ELPT total score for the Group III teacher sample (N=40) and 40 grade seven students of Ohmine School shows a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The teacher mean is 174 with a standard deviation of 20.8 while the student mean is 127 with a standard deviation of 42.2 (standard error of the difference=7.38). These students have as a group had the most continuous native English speaking teachers and earned the highest scores at this level for the students tested during the CRC pre-testing program. Table 6 gives a breakdown of means of the two groups on each of the subtests.

The significance of the differences in the subtest means has not been computed but it is assumed that the differences in Oral Production, Oral Reading, Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary, Grammar and Structure are significant, whereas the others may not be. In the Oral Production of Subtest 1 the teachers were in a more comfortable position in the interview situation which may account for some of the difference on this subtest. On the subtest in which the student mean is actually slightly higher, the composition Subtest 8, it should be said on behalf of the teachers that the subjectivity of grading the compositions may have worked against them as there was a naturally higher level of aspiration for the teacher group. They showed much less variation than the students with more falling in the middle score range on this subtest.

This simple use of means as a basis of comparison should not obscure the fact that there are individual students making much better scores than some of the individual teachers, a situation not unique to Micronesia.

The wise placement of teachers, however, would hopefully put them where they can provide the greatest challenge to the children.

TABLE 6

CRC ELPT LEVEL III MEANS
OF 40 TEACHERS AND 40 7TH GRADE STUDENTS BY SUBTEST

	Total Poss. Score	Teachers N=40	Students N=40	Diff.	Diff. / Tot. Sc.
1. Oral Production	27	23.0	12.075	10.075	.404
2. Aural Comprehension and Discrimination	16	9.775	8.875	.900	.056
3. Oral Production (Mimicry)	80	54.825	41.0	12.925	.161
4. Oral Reading	9	6.875	4.175	2.5	.277
5. Aural Comprehension (From Reading)	5	2.325	1.925	.400	.08
6. Reading Comprehension	25	19.9	12.6	7.3	.292
7. Voc., Gr. and Stru.	50	39.5	29.425	10.075	.2015
8. Composition	50	17.725	17.775	.050	.001

Another comparison of teachers with a student group is possible by looking at the Lado scores of 394 Trust Territory high school seniors who took the Lado TAC in 1967. In the student sample a score of 68 is equivalent to the 58.7 percentile while a score of 69 as noted previously in the 118 teacher sample is only the 44.4 percentile. Likewise in the student sample while 85 per cent of them fall below a score of 78 only 76.2 per cent of the teachers fall below a score of 79. A score of 90 in the student group is equivalent to the 97.9 percentile while in the teacher sample it is the 95.3 percentile. Thus, although there is much overlapping with some students exceeding many of the teachers, there is on the whole a higher level of proficiency in English exhibited by the teachers than the students. The margin of difference is not as great as might be desired but in view of the fact that one might casually judge the students to be ahead of the teachers, it is somewhat reassuring to see that on an average or percentage basis, the teachers are still ahead of the high school students while they are involved in teaching elementary school students.

Summary and Recommendations. Since Micronesian Teachers are expected both to study and often to teach in English which is for them at least a second or third language, an effort was made to assess their proficiency in English. A total of 144 Micronesian teachers were a part of the sample groups. Three instruments were used in the evaluation: The Lado Aural Comprehension Test, the CRC English Language Proficiency Test Level III and an instructor's test. Each of the instruments showed a wide range of English ability. Comparison of teachers' and students' scores showed the teachers ahead of the students but the margin was not as great as would be desired with some students definitely gaining on the teachers in proficiency.

Several recommendations seem in order: (1) If Micronesian teachers are to replace Americans in the teaching of English in the foreseeable future, those indigenous teachers or students who show potential for becoming good English teachers should be identified and given training for this speciality. (2) Since the majority of the current teachers and students show deficiencies which would make study abroad difficult and since intensive training in English helps to correct these deficiencies, such in-the-field courses should be given before sending students away for further schooling. (3) Since all the teachers have areas of weakness, in-service training should be encouraged for all teachers on a continuing basis. Based on population projections the need for teachers will continue making it necessary to retain as many as possible from the present staff. As the children themselves show greater proficiency in English it will be necessary to continue to upgrade the teachers whi[illegible] in service. This need is accentuated by the fact that some Micronesians may teach aural and oral English, some may teach reading and writing of English, and others may be expected to teach all other subjects in English.

The task ahead in teacher training in just this one area--English language--is a big one. As noted in the Stanford Research Institute Report, "Even foreign language instruction in American colleges and universities has yet to meet the standards of achievement that are required in foreign language instruction in Micronesia" (Platt and Sorensen, 1967).

CHAPTER 5

METHODS AND MATERIALS

INVOLVEMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL FACULTY AND COMMUNITY MEMBERS

Advisory Committee. A Ponape District Advisory Committee was established early in November, 1966, with representation on the committee including a cross-section of job functions and academic background. At one of the meetings the English Program Specialist from Trust Territory Headquarters discussed the relationship of this curriculum project to the overall English program in the Trust Territory and urged that all possible support be given.

Use of Micronesian Informants. Committees of teachers from Experimental schools were established to serve as informants in the early stages of curriculum development. These committees were invited to several meetings, one with the Trust Territory English Program Specialist. They also were requested to meet as committees to compile their suggestions regarding real life situations appropriate for various age and grade levels in the Ponapean cultural milieu.

Meetings with Public School Administrators. Meetings were held to arrive at consensus with the public school administrators (Educational Administrator and staff, Superintendent of Schools, Principals, Teacher Supervisors, etc.) on policies and procedures which required joint action on the curriculum project. Included were (a) arrival at tentative decisions with the public school administration regarding the settling of the boundaries of school districts, grouping practices, and teacher assignments which must be definite in order to apply the random sampling techniques in the research design; and (b) agreement on plans for the 1967 summer program including a workshop on the experimental curriculum for the experimental teachers and other courses of comparable value for the non-experimental teachers.

CHOICE OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SCHOOLS

Selection of Experimental and Control Schools. The choice of Experimental and Control schools was discussed with the advisory committee in an effort to select schools which would be fairly matched in the two groups in terms of pupil population, faculty, cultural and environmental influences, and the minimizing of contamination between the experimental and control schools. In the choice of schools to be involved in the curriculum development and research, it was decided that both district center schools (in Kolonia) and rural schools must be used in order to provide a representative range in the background of pupils, the preparation of teachers, and the teaching-learning environment.

Two rural schools, Sekere and Pehleng, were chosen as Experimental schools. Two other rural schools, Mand and Kinakapw, were chosen as Control schools. The entire school population of pupils and teachers served as the population pool for the sampling in each school.

The following factors were considered in choosing the rural schools in order to balance control and experimental situations: (1) population of schools; (2) language and culture mix in schools; (3) range of Grade 1-8 in each school; (4) exposure to native speakers of English in each school through American Contract Teachers or Peace Corps Volunteers; (5) range in training and experience of teachers comparable in the schools; (6) distance and accessibility from the district center; and (7) separation of Experimental and Control schools at opposite ends of the district, thus discouraging cross-fertilization and contamination of data.

In the district center, Kolonia, the establishment of a new elementary school, Ohmine, and of a district boundary between the old and new schools provided two schools Grade 1-8 for use in the curriculum research. Both schools had polyglot population, including Kolonia Elementary (Experimental) children from the Kusaiean Village and Ohmine (control) from the Kapingamarangi Village.

In forecasting the numbers of pupils to be enrolled in the schools in 1967-68, the estimates ran somewhat as shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7

ESTIMATED PUPIL POPULATION, EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SCHOOLS, 1967-1968

Experimental Schools	No.	Control Schools	No.
Town:		Town:	
Kolonia Elementary	400	Ohmine Elementary	400
Rural:		Rural:	
Sekere & Pehleng	220	Mand & Kinakapw	220
Total	620	Total	620

With these numbers, it was expected to be possible to select randomly from the Control and Experimental schools to furnish a minimum of 500 research subjects, even allowing for the 50 per cent turnover estimated in many classes. A large pool of subjects would be randomly established and pre-tested at the beginning of the school year. At the end of the school year, only the subjects who had remained in the school through the year would be post=tested, hopefully totalling a minimum of 500 subjects after post-testing.

DESCRIPTION OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Random Sampling of Research Subjects. In each of the schools where more students were enrolled than the sampling for the individual testing required, the students were randomly selected by grade, with an approximate equalization of subjects by grade in the Experimental and its Control school. In instances where all the students were required to meet the sample size and three examiners were testing, the students were randomly assigned to the examiners. In these schools where three examiners were involved, approximately equal numbers of subjects in each grade were assigned to each examiner.

Although there was a marked increase in school enrollment beyond the projected enrollment, the attrition was great through the continual moving of children from school to school. As a result, the final number of subjects after post-testing was less than 500.

TABLE 8

NUMBER OF SUBJECTS BY LEVELS* BY SCHOOLS---POST-TESTING

LEVEL I	Experimental	Total	Control		Total		
Kolonia	38	38	Ohmine	43	43	81	Town
Sekere	24		Mand	23			
Pehleng	18	42	Kinakapw	18	41	83	Rural
		T=80			T=84	T=164	
LEVEL II	Experimental	Total	Control		Total		
Kolonia	42	42	Ohmine	41	41	83	Town
Sekere	22		Mand	25			
Pehleng	23	45	Kinakapw	23	48	93	Rural
		T=87			T=89	T=176	
LEVEL III	Experimental	Total	Control		Total		
Kolonia	35	35	Ohmine	41	41	76	Town
Sekere	20		Mand	21			
Pehleng	17	37	Kinakapw	12	33	70	Rural
		T=72			T=74	T=146	
				Grand Total =486			

*Level I--Grades 1-3; Level II--Grades 4-6; Level III--Grades 7-8

TABLE 9

NUMBER OF MALE AND FEMALE SUBJECTS BY LEVELS BY SCHOOLS--POST-TESTING

LEVEL I	Experimental	Combined Total	Control	Combined Total	Grand Totals
Kolonia	Male 24		Ohmine M 27		51 M
	Female 14		F 16		30 F
		38 Town		43 Town	61 Town
Sekere	Male 12		Mand M 10		
	Female 12		F 13		
		24 Rural		23 Rural	
Pehleng	Male 6		Kinakapw M 11		
	Female 12		F 7		39 M
		18 Rural		18 Rural	44 F
		42 Rural		41 Rural	83 Rural
	Male = 42	T = 80	M = 48	T= 84	T = 164
	Female = 38		F = 36		
LEVEL II	**Experimental**	**Combined Total**	**Control**	**Combined Total**	**Grand Totals**
Kolonia	Male 26		Ohmine M 20		46 M
	Female 16		F 21		37 F
		42 Town		41 Town	83 Rural
Sekere	Male 12		Mand M 11		
	Female 10		F 14		
		22 Rural		25 Rural	
Pehleng	Male 14		Kinakapw M 12		
	Female 9		F 11		49 M
		23 Rural		23 Rural	44 F
		45 Rural		48 Rural	93 Rural
	Male = 52	T = 87	M = 46	T = 89	T = 176
	Female = 35		F = 46		
LEVEL III	**Experimental**	**Combined Total**	**Control**	**Combined Total**	**Grand Totals**
Kolonia	Male 15		Ohmine M 20		35 M
	Female 20		F 21		41 F
		35 Town		41 Town	76 Town
Sekere	Male 10		Mand M 13		
	Female 10		F 8		
		20 Rural		21 Rural	
Pehleng	Male 12		Kinakapw M 10		
	Female 5		F 2		45 M
		17 Rural		12 Rural	25 F
		37 Rural		33 Rural	70 Rural
	Male = 37	T = 72	M = 43	T = 74	T = 146
	Female = 35		F = 31		
	Male = T = 131		M = T = 137		
	Female = T = 108		F = T = 113		
				Grand Total = 486	

Number of Subjects by Levels by Schools. The description of the research subjects is based on the subjects included in the post-testing, a grand total of 486 subjects, somewhat less than the anticipated 500.

Table 8 shows the distribution of these subjects by levels, by schools, and by rural versus town location. Level I includes Grades 1-3; Level II Grades 4-6; and Level III Grades 7-8. These levels correspond to the organization by levels of the English Language Proficiency Tests which were developed for use in the experimental research.

Examination of the data in Table 8 shows that the number in the Control group exceeded the number in the Experimental group by 8 subjects from a grand total of 486 subjects. This would not seem to be a significant difference. However, it is possible that it might have an influence worth noting in conjunction with other factors discussed in the following pages.

Number of Male and Female Subjects by Levels and Schools. The number of male and female subjects distributed by levels, by schools, and by rural versus town location in the post-testing is shown in Table 9. Inspection of the data fails to show a clear pattern of difference in the distribution of subjects by sex in the Experimental and Control groups. It would seem that the overall match on this factor was good.

On the factor of distribution by town versus rural location, the Control groups have 5 more subjects than the Experimental groups in the town school at Level I and 6 more at Level III. The figures for the rural schools do not present a clear pattern.

Ages of Subjects by Levels by Schools. Examination of the data in Table 10 shows that there is a pattern of age difference present both in the range of ages of the Experimental compared to the Control school subjects and in the number of overage pupils in the Experimental as compared to the Control subjects. These differences are more obvious at Level III than at Levels I and II. While these differences may not be statistically significant, it is possible that they may have had some influence on the research results when combined with the slightly larger overall number of subjects in the Control group, and the slightly larger number of town subjects in Level I and III in the control group.

Socioeconomic Factors Affecting Research Subjects. Because research studies in the United States have shown significant relationships between socioeconomic status and school achievement, factors in this general category were checked to see whether significant relationships appeared in the data on Micronesia. The factors included were the occupational level of the head of the family, the educational level of the parents, and the bilingual or multilingual environment in the home.

An acquaintance with Micronesia makes it very clear that occupational categories may not be comparable to the United States counterparts and that economic stratification in the community is not as marked as in many areas of the world. It is also apparent that the major working force of the more readily identifiable occupations are found living in the one

TABLE 10

AGES OF SUBJECTS BY LEVELS BY SCHOOLS--POST-TESTING

LEVEL I - Age	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	School Totals
Experimental									
Kolonia	4	10	10	5	5	2	1	1	38
Sekere	2	4	7	4	2	3	2	0	24
Pehleng	0	5	1	6	6	0	0	0	18
Total No. of E. by age.	6	19	18	15	13	5	3	1	80 E.
% of total of E.	7½	24	22½	19	16	6	4	1	100%
Control									
Ohmine	10	8	16	6	3	0	0	0	43
Mand	8	7	5	3	0	0	0	0	23
Kinakapw	1	3	6	3	4	0	0	1	18
Total No. of C. by age	1	21	21	24	13	3	0	1	84 C.
% of Total of C.	1	25	25	29	15	4	0	1	100%

T=164

LEVEL II - Age	8	10	11	12	13	14	15	18	School Totals
Experimental									
Kolonia	1	4	9	8	10	9	0	1	42
Sekere	0	2	4	3	8	3	2	0	22
Pehleng	0	4	2	5	5	3	4	0	23
Total No. of E. by age	1	10	15	16	23	15	6	1	87 E.
% of total of E.	1	12	17	18	26	17	8	1	100%
Control									
Ohmine	0	2	6	15	12	4	2	0	41
Mand	0	3	7	8	4	1	2	0	25
Kinakapw	0	4	5	5	5	4	0	0	23
Total No. of C. by age	0	9	18	28	21	9	4	0	89 C.
% of Total of C.	0	10	20	31	24	10	5	0	100%

T=176

TABLE 10 (cont.)

LEVEL III - Age	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	23	School Totals
Experimental									
Kolonia	0	5	12	7	7	2	1	1	35
Sekere	3	2	5	5	5	0	0	0	20
Pehleng	0	2	4	6	3	2	0	0	17
Total No. of E. by age	3	9	21	18	15	4	1	1	72 E.
% of total of E.	4	13	29	25	21	6	1	1	100%
Control									
Ohmine	0	11	17	10	2	0	1	0	41
Mand	0	4	12	2	2	1	0	0	21
Kinakapw	0	1	5	5	1	0	0	0	12
Total No. of C. by age	0	16	34	17	5	1	1	0	74 C.
% of total of C.	0	22	46	23	7	1	1	0	100%
									T=146
							Grand Total		=486

town, Kolonia. This introduces the variable of exposure to English, giving an advantage to the majority in the upper levels, and giving further handicap to those most likely to list farming as their occupation. Likewise, there are many gaining income from several different occupations.

Aware of these limitations, a review was made of all the occupations listed in the title and pay schedule of the Trust Territory. Occupations present in the community but not included in the title and pay schedule were added (e.g., minister). Consideration was given to pay, prestige value of the position, and the educational requirements in designating five occupational levels. These were: I. Professional; II. Lower-paid and Semi-professional; III. Clerical, Prepprofessional and Protective; IV. Upper-level Skilled Labor and Crafts; and V. Unskilled Labor, Farming and Domestic.

A questionnaire was prepared in Ponapean (see Appendix D) and sent to the parents of all the children who were subjects in the total battery sample. A high percentage of the questionnaires was returned. Where several types of employment contributed to the family income the highest level was designated. Because of the low percentage of the population actually employed in regular paid positions there was not a sufficient number of subjects in the sample groups to support the five categories originally planned. Levels I and II were combined so that there would be a sufficient number in each of the categories to do a comparison study. The questionnaires also reported years of schooling for each of the parents, and information on the language or languages spoken in the home.

A summary of the information showed that there were not enough responses in some of the cells to justify a statistical analysis.

The information from the questionnaires is helpful in describing the subjects from the Experimental and Control schools who composed the testing sample. The number for whom the information is available varies on the different tables as not all responded to each of the items. In some instances it was not clear whether a blank represented "0" or "unknown."

TABLE 11

OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL OF HEAD OF FAMILY

OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL*	I	II	III	IV	Totals
SCHOOLS					
E. Kolonia	17	22	21	31	91
C. Ohmine	21	13	37	34	105
E. Sekere	0	4	11	49	64
C. Mand	0	3	15	51	69
E. Pehleng	0	0	5	48	53
C. Kinakapw	1	1	4	37	43
	39	43	93	250	425
% of Total in Level	9%	10%	22%	59%	100%

*LEVEL I - Professional, Semi-professional
LEVEL II - Clerical, Pre-professional, Protective
LEVEL III - Semi-skilled, Upper Level Labor, Crafts
LEVEL IV - Unskilled, Farming and Domestic

Table 11 which gives the occupational level of the head of the family shows the similarity between the Experimental and its Control school. Even with the two town schools as a part of the study, the majority (59 per cent) fall in Level IV, the unskilled labor, farming or domestic group. In only one school, Ohmine, does any other level have more subjects. Here Level III has 3 more. As expected, in the rural schools most fall in Level IV.

In reviewing the educational level of the parents in Table 12 it will be noted that 51 per cent of the fathers reported and 56 per cent of the mothers fall at Level III which represents 3, 4, or 5 years of schooling. A word of caution is in order concerning the responses to this question. Many failed to respond and it was clear that some of those responding were not accurate or were using different ways of counting years. Many of today's parents were school age children during the war so that even their memory as well as their method of calculating may be in error. Here again the schools are well matched on this variable.

TABLE 12

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF PARENTS

	FATHER					MOTHER				
LEVELS* SCHOOLS	I	II	III	IV	Total	I	II	III	IV	Total
Kolonia	20	17	38	15	90	2	18	43	27	90
Ohmine	17	31	27	18	93	5	17	42	37	101
Sekere	4	15	33	9	61	2	3	39	15	59
Mand	2	7	34	18	61	0	6	23	34	63
Pehleng	1	4	43	4	52	0	2	46	2	50
Kinakapw	1	6	28	6	41	0	3	31	6	40
Totals	45	80	203	70	398	9	49	224	121	403
% of Total	11%	20%	51%	18%	100%	2%	12%	56%	30%	100%

*LEVEL I = 9 or more years of schooling
LEVEL II = 6, 7 or 8 years of schooling
LEVEL III = 3, 4 or 5 years of schooling
LEVEL IV = 0, 1 or 2 years of schooling

It was possible to supplement the responses from the questionnaires by checking with the subjects on the languages used in the family so that on the bilingual-multilingual factor there was a response from the total 486 subjects. It will be noted in Tables 13 and 14 that the percentages of subjects in these two categories are similar, 52 per cent being bilingual and 48 per cent multilingual. Bilingual is used to designate those who are using only Ponapean in the home and learning English in school. Multilingual refers to those who use at least one additional language other than Ponapean in the home, are living in a Ponapean-speaking environment, and are learning English at school.

In looking at the bilingual-multilingual factor as it appears in the Experimental and Control schools shown in Tables 13 and 14, it is noted that bilingualism is stronger in the Experimental schools and multilingualism in the Control schools. It also is noted that Sekere and its Control School, Mand, are well matched on this factor where there is a multilingual environment, while Pehleng and Kinakapw are well matched where Ponapean is the dominant language. Kolonia and Ohmine where this factor was not given as much consideration are not as well matched.

One can only speculate as to whether multilingualism in the home contributes to more rapid progress in language learning in Micronesia. Apparently it does not serve as a handicap, judging from the data resulting from the post-testing which will be presented in Chapter 6.

TABLE 13

BILINGUAL OR MULTILINGUAL FACTOR

	Bilingual	Multilingual	Total
Ex. Kolonia	76	39	115
Con. Ohmine	51	74	125
Ex. Sekere	11	55	66
Con. Mand	10	59	69
Ex. Pehleng	58	0	58
Con. Kinakapw	49	4	53
	255	231	486 Total
% of Total	52%	48%	100%

TABLE 14

STUDENTS FROM E. AND C. SCHOOLS
FROM BILINGUAL AND MULTILINGUAL ENVIRONMENT

Experimental		Control		Experimental		Control	
Kolonia	76	Ohmine	51	Kolonia	39	Ohmine	74
Sekere	11	Mand	10	Sekere	55	Mand	59
Pehleng	58	Kinakapw	49	Pehleng	0	Kinakapw	4
	145		110=255	Total	94		137=T-231
% of Total in this category:				% of Total in this category:			
	57 %		43 %		41 %		59 % 100%

Summary of Description of Experimental and Control Groups. The research subjects for the Experimental and Control groups were selected by a random sampling technique. A comparison of the two groups of subjects who were post-tested on the total battery showed that they were well matched in total numbers, in sex, occupational level of head of family, educational level of parents, and the bilingual-multilingual factor with the exception of Kolonia and Ohmine Elementary Schools. The data were not adequate to indicate the effect of the last factor.

The greatest differences between the population of the two research groups were (1) the wider age range in the Experimental group and (2) the larger number of overage pupils in the Experimental group.

DEVELOPMENT OF CRC CURRICULUM

Basic Premises:

1. A corpus of basic grammatical features and processes of the English language should be developed, around which the curriculum would be developed sequentially.
2. Problems in learning communication skills in Ponape District should be identified and given special attention in the curriculum.
3. The vernacular should be used as the medium of instruction and to teach reading and writing in Grades 1-2 while aural comprehension and oral production of English are also taught, with reading and writing in English starting in Grade 3 and the transition to English as the medium of instruction occurring gradually beginning in Grade 4.
4. The four language areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing should be related, as well as relating the learning of English to other subjects in the curriculum.
5. The curriculum should deal with real life situations meaningful to the learner so that he can express ideas in the process of second language learning.
6. Children should have much listening comprehension experience before direct teaching and drill on English structures so that they catch on to the sentence-combining processes of the second language, not merely learn a set of habits by imitation.
7. The ability to understand and to make themselves understood is the goal of teaching a second language to students, and therefore the content is of primary importance rather than absolute correctness in various facets of the language.
8. Varied activities, visual aids, realia, and other teaching aids contribute in important ways to the learning process.
9. Achievement tests built into the curriculum are needed for evaluation and diagnosis.
10. Teachers need the help of model lesson plans which include all of the preceding points as appropriate.

Writing the Curriculum. A team of TESL specialists served as the curriculum writers, with the assistance of art specialists who drew the pictures for use with the content. Ten teachers' guides at successive levels of difficulty to serve Grades 1-8 were prepared, with accompanying sets of pictures. For students using the Curriculum Research Project English Books 7-10, reading and writing booklets were prepared to reinforce the oral structures taught. Exercises in English comprehension were prepared for the upper grades.

In preparation for the curriculum writing, the limited linguistic data on the Ponapean language was studied. Sources available which were examined were Dr. Paul Garvin's Linguistic Study of Ponape and Dr. Mark Lester's Lessons in Ponapean developed for the Peace Corps Training Center at the University of Hawaii. In addition to these, Dr. Ruth Crymes' "Preparing English Language Lessons: Considerations" based on her analysis of the two above works was carefully read.

Tapes were made of various native Ponapeans speaking English to determine actual phonological and structural difficulties Ponapeans meet in speaking English.

Tapes were made of Ponapeans speaking their native language.

Two members of the writing staff spent two nights and three days with a Ponapean family in a rural village. This visit enabled them to see typical family life and gave them experiences on which to base their writings.

Available books on Ponapean legends, history and culture were utilized for the writing of materials.

Observation in the public schools, at times sitting through an entire day with one teacher, made clear the various needs of the classroom teacher in Ponape. The attention span of children at various grade levels was also carefully observed.

As the first lessons were based on classroom situations, observation in the schools proved most helpful.

A week was spent in a rural school very early in the writing to try out some of the materials with children from Grade 1 through 8 to determine their suitability.

At later stages in the writing all materials were classroom tested, then revised on the basis of feed-back from their use in the classroom.

One or more achievement tests were written for each unit of the CRC material. The purpose of these tests was to aid the teacher in evaluating what percentage of his class had mastered the particular structure being tested for a certain unit. The tests were in various forms: oral, aural, and/or written. The tests for the primary grades were almost entirely oral-aural because beginning English students, obviously, cannot read or write. The tests for the most advanced units called for more reading and writing in their presentation, however.

Ponapean Reading Materials. The amount of reading material available to teach the Ponapean language is extremely limited. Experience charts prepared by the classroom teachers using the language experience approach to reading are the most effective source.

Because the curriculum calls for the teaching of the native language in the primary grades, it is important that the language have a standard orthography. (At the present time there are several orthographies being used.)

A committee was set up to look into the matter of standardizing the orthography. They agreed on that orthography set up in 1953 which is currently used by the District Administration Office. Copies of the proposed orthography were sent out to various members of the community, including the teachers.

A preprimer, Ponapean Stories, was written by a group of teachers for use in reading readiness and beginning reading.

One Ponapean preprimer and one primer were prepared by a Ponapean member of the faculty of the Micronesian Teacher Education Center in collaboration with two Peace Corps Volunteers who did the illustrations. These books were titled At Peneinei and Koasaoipen Pwutak Pahmen.

The Senyavin Times, a mimeographed Ponape District weekly newspaper, was used for both Social Studies and Language Arts in the upper grades. It was printed in both English and Ponapean in parallel columns.

The exercises in English comprehension already mentioned were translated into Ponapean and tried in the middle and upper grade classes. The teachers evaluated them as helpful in teaching reading skills in Ponapean.

In summary, it should be noted again that the English language curriculum improvement program included the policy of beginning reading and writing in Ponapean. While the Curriculum Research Contract called for the development of an oral English curriculum, amplifying the resources for Ponapean reading was badly needed.

A COMPARISON OF THE TATE ORAL ENGLISH CURRICULUM AND THE CURRICULUM RESEARCH PROJECT CURRICULUM FOR ORAL ENGLISH

The Tate Oral English curriculum currently being used throughout the schools of the Trust Territory was originally written for Maori children in the Cook Islands. Maori being part of New Zealand, the materials were written for learners of British English. Therefore certain changes in structure and vocabulary are necessary in the use of these materials in an American administered territory where American English is used. For example, the structure "How many baskets have you?" must be changed to "How many baskets do you have?" or "How many baskets have you got?" Similarly, vocabulary items such as "tin" need to be changed to "can" and Maori fruits such as "pawpaw" and "kumaru" must be changed to fruits common in this locality.

The Curriculum Research Project on Ponape was set up to write an oral English curriculum specifically for the school children of Ponape. These materials were written in American English and the vocabulary included words for items present in this locality.

Both the Tate and CRC materials propose approximately two years of oral English for about 30 minutes daily before children learn to read and write English. The Tate materials call for two fifteen minute periods of English a day; one in the earlier part of the school day, and the other in the latter part of the day. The CRC materials call for one thirty minute period a day in Books 1-6. A forty-five or fifty minute period is desirable for Books 7-10. Both the Tate and CRC materials propose that children learn to read and write in their native language while they practice oral English.

Format-wise the Tate materials are arranged in Sets. Each Set is a day's work. Every Set has three parts: Speech Training, Lesson A and Lesson B. Four Sets are to be taught in a week with Friday being used as a review day. The Speech Training consists of articulation exercises to prepare students for the new sounds to be encountered in the Lessons. Each Lesson includes "Aids" which tells the teacher what visual aids are needed for the lesson (teachers are to provide these aids); "Notes" are for the teacher only and this is information on grammar and pronunciation for the lesson; "New Item" gives the item to be taught in a frame; "Presentation" gives the teacher a step by step account of how he is to proceed with the lesson. "Drills" give the children additional opportunities to practice the new structure.

The CRC materials are planned so that each unit is a week's work. Each unit revolves around a listening comprehension narrative. The narrative is presented for a whole week. The narrative contains structure for review, for production and for recognition. This way the students review structures already learned, and listen to structures in a natural situation before learning to produce them. The "Aim of the Lesson" is given at the top of each daily lesson. This includes the item(s) to be reviewed and the item(s) to be taught. The necessary visual aids are listed and pictures for narratives and drills are provided for the teacher. The section marked "Procedure" gives a step by step account of what the teacher is to do. Usually this consists of a review of a structure previously taught followed by a presentation of the listening comprehension narrative. The teacher asks various questions at the end of the narrative to see how well the children understood the story. (The CRC materials emphasize the necessity of listening and understanding before production.) The next step in the "Procedure" is a "Presentation" of the new structure, usually in the form of a dialog. This dialog includes certain structures extracted from the narrative. Once the dialog is learned, it is followed by "Drills" which provide further practice of the new structure. Pronunciation practices, rhymes, songs and physical education activities are also incorporated into the lessons.

Where the Tate materials consistently use the direct method of presentation, the CRC materials use a combination of a picture story and dialog which show the use of a structure in a more natural situation. The CRC materials use the direct method in combination with other means of presentation.*

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*Dacanay, Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching.

The Tate curriculum follows a very strict sequence in the teaching of English structure. Furthermore, each Lesson includes only the particular item being produced in that particular lesson. The CRC materials expose children to listening to other structures as well (some in review, others for the purpose of recognition of structures to come), yet producing only particular structures extracted from the narrative.

The Tate Lessons teach items in heavily concentrated bits. The CRC materials attempt to teach items in natural situations and as a whole, rather than bits. As an example, compare the teaching of the greeting "Good Morning" as treated by the two materials.

Tate: II Lesson 2A**

Aids: A practice - group of four children standing apart from one another. The class must see the teacher's face.

Notes: (a) The voice glides upward on the name. If some of the children do not copy you in this, explain to them that it sounds more polite.
(b) Children should use the teacher's name, not Teacher.

New Item:

Good ↘ Morning
↗ A
↗ X
↗ Etc.
↗ T

Presentation: 1. Using the mother tongue, tell the class in two sentences that they are to learn what polite people say when

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p. 1- The purpose of the presentation is to provide a situation in which the structure can be used, one in which the pupils can associate the meaning expressed by the structure with real experience.
p. 9- The dialog is perhaps the best way to present grammar structure because it approximates closest the "real life" situations in which language operates.
pp. 68-69- Teaching by associating an object , an action, or an idea with the word or expression that names, describes or explains it, has been called the direct method of presentation. This method has also been described as a drill in disguise because there is no clear cut division between the presentation and the drill that follows... This is not to say that the direct method of presentation should be avoided altogether. There may be some grammar structures than can best be presented by this method. The teacher is well advised, however, not to overdo the direct method. She should do as Gurrey says,"...to get more out of it by combining it with other methods."

**Tate, Oral English, Book I, Set Two, pp. 18-19 they greet one another in the morning. Tell them to listen and to copy the sound of your voice.

2. Stop in front of each child in the practice - group, smiling politely. Speak to him and wait until he answers. Do not worry about his speech unless it is very bad. The practice - group will become perfect later with the rest of the class.

Teacher: Good morning, X.

X : Good morning, T.

Teacher: Good morning, A.

Etc.

Drills: 3. Face the class, smiling.

Teacher: Good morning, Grade 1. (or your usual name for the class)

Class : Good morning, T.

Repeat this greeting. The whole class and individual children say: Good - good - after you several times. They practice morning. They practice Good morning for pronunciation. They practice saying names politely with the voice gliding upwards.

4. Six children stand in a row. One child goes along the row greeting each child in turn. Each child replies. If they do not know what to say show them by greeting the first one yourself.

5. Individual children greet the whole class.

Z : Good morning, Grade I.

Class: Good morning, Z/etc.

III Lesson 2B

1. Group - Work

   (a) Show the class how to get into groups quickly and quietly.
   (b) Demonstrate Good Morning, X with a group, pretending you are a leader.
   (c) Watch the group practice. Train them to speak clearly and quietly.
   (d) Explain in the mother - tongue that you will only allow them to do group-work then they can do an exercise well. Somebody must talk all the time.

2. Revision:

Good morning, A/etc.

I - You.

I'm A/etc. You're X/etc.

CRC:*

A. Aim of Lesson: To teach greetings

B. Visual Aids Needed: Pictures for narrative
Paper bag puppets of Anita and Dakio

C. Procedure:

1. Present listening comprehension narrative and ask comprehension questions: (Give summary of story in Ponapean if children do not understand English).

Anita David and Dakio Robert are friends. They walk to school together every morning.

Anita waits for Dakio. When she sees him, she calls to him, "Good morning, Dakio."

He says, "Hi, Anita. How are you?"

"I'm fine, thank you," she says. "How are you?"

"I'm fine, too," Dakio says.

There are two new students in their class. They're from Sekere. Dakio asks Anita if she know the girl's name.

"Oh yes," Anita says. "Her name's Marda. But I don't know the boy's name."

"Is the teacher's name Ehas?" Dakio asked.

"Yes, it is. His name's Ehas," Anita answered.

a. Does Dakio go to school?
b. What's the girl's name?
c. How does Anita greet Dakio?
d. What does Dakio say?
e. Where are the new students from?
f. What's the teacher's name?

2. Teach the following dialog: (use puppets)
(When Anita and Dakio meet, they say)

Anita: Good morning, Dakio.

Dakio: Good morning. How are you?

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*CRC materials, Book I, Unit I, Lessons 1-5, pp. 1-5

Anita: I'm fine, thank you. How are you?

Dakio: I'm fine, too.

3. Teach the "Good Morning Song":

   Good morning, good morning
   Good morning, how are you?
   Good morning, good morning
   I'm fine, thank you.

In Lesson 2 and 3 of the same unit, the dialog is reviewed and drilled. "Good morning" will later be replaced with "Hi" and "Hello."

The Tate materials suggest that the teacher and students say an item slowly when first learning it and then say it faster and faster until normal speed is reached. The CRC materials propose that new structures be presented from the very beginning at normal speed. When the structure is long and difficult for children to repeat, the technique of backward buildup is used until the children can master the structure.

The Tate materials control vocabulary very strictly. They attempt to teach only words whose sounds they have taught one by one in the Speech Training.*

The CRC materials, on the other hand, teach vocabulary items that seem to go naturally with the structure being taught. This way children can express more things they wish to say. The CRC materials consider problems concerned with pronunciation as problems but not overly so. Precisely correct pronunciation of English is not our goal. Our goal, rather, is to develop students of English as a second language who can readily understand and make themselves understood in English. English grammar, pronunciation, intonation, stress, and vocabulary are the tools for the expression of ideas. The content of what is expressed is of primary importance.

In addition to oral English, Books 7-8 of the CRC materials contain beginning reading and writing materials based on the oral English. Books 9-10 contain paragraphs for reading as well as programmed writing exercises based on the oral materials. These reading and writing materials in Books 7-10 are not intended as reading and writing programs in themselves. They are intended as reinforcement of the oral structures taught.

PROVISION OF INSTRUCTION AND ASSISTANCE TO TEACHERS

Summer Workshop. To prepare the teachers in the experimental classes to work with the experimental curriculum, they were enrolled in a summer workshop scheduled June 12-July 21, 1967. The workshop included: (1) observation and participation in demonstration classes; (2) lectures, reading, and dicussion on Teaching English As a Second Language; (3) preparation of teaching materials and audio-visual aids; (4) instruction in English for Micronesian teachers; and (5) instruction in Ponapean orthography. It ran approximately 6 hours per day, and students completing the program received two units toward high school graduation, if they lacked a high school diploma. Those who qualified for college admission earned college credits in Speech, TESL, and/or Audio-Visual Education through College of Guam extension courses.

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*Tate, Oral English, Bk. I, pp. 11-12

If they are allowed to try many new sounds at once, they will make mistakes which will become habits. It is easy to teach one new sound at a time to beginners, but it is impossible to correct bad pronunciation habits later.

Teachers in Non-experimental Classes. The classes for teachers not in the experimental teacher group also included classes for either high school or college credit, depending on the student's qualifications. The course offerings included English Language Institute for students who did not pass the speech proficiency test; other standard college **freshman** courses; Modern Mathematics, The Experience Approach to Reading; and curriculum development under the leadership of the elementary school principal in Kolonia.

Supervisory Visits to Public Schools. Observation and supervision were done in all three experimental schools. Kolonia Elementary probably received more attention than Pehleng and Sekere for it was located in the District Center. However, there were numerous conferences with the English teachers from both schools regarding their problems.

In visiting rural schools the observer usually remained in the village for a week. During that time oral English, reading and writing (English and Ponapean) classes were observed. Observations were followed by individual conferences with teachers. Demonstration classes and general meetings were held to clear up questions and problems that several teachers might have in common.

The rural schools, particularly, suffered from poor physical facilities. Pehleng had one school building with tin roofs and walls divided into four classrooms. The partitions were portable blackboards, bulletin boards and bookshelves. In these four rooms were housed the ninety-some children in Grades 1-8. Two grades were squeezed into one classroom. In some classrooms enough furniture to accommodate all the children would not fit into the room.

In Sekere five classrooms were available for 173 children in Grades 1-8. The third and fourth graders were combined in a class of forty-two children. The seventh and eighth graders were in one group and they shared a classroom with sixth graders. Sekere School had only six teachers. Therefore, the one American teacher handled all six oral English classes. It was unfortunate that the English teacher was not able to work with a Micronesian teacher in the classroom.

In both rural schools there was a lack of furniture, classroom supplies, books, and teaching devices.

In initial visits to these schools, attempts were made to do the best job with what we had. Teachers were asked to have children recite chorally at low volume so as not to disturb the other classes. In Pehleng the cook house became the oral English classroom. Teachers constantly tried to get students to be in school so that the most could be made of the hours in school. In both rural schools some children and teachers walked for miles to get to school. Considering the poor trails and weather conditions, attendance at both rural schools was commendable.

As for the teaching of languages, each school had its own peculiarity. Kolonia Elementary in the District Center had children of polyglot background. Some of the children understood little Ponapean when they began schooling for they used nothing but their native language at home. In Sekere, most of the population was Mortlockese with a sprinkling of Ponapean and Mokilese. For most of the children Ponapean and English were both new languages. Pehleng was practically 100 per cent Ponapean in population. The children there seemed to read and write Ponapean better than children in the other two schools. However, their English background was poor for not until a year ago did they have an American teacher in the village.

Sekere Workshop. In answer to a request for help in the teaching of reading by the teachers at Sekere School, a workshop was planned for the week between Christmas and New Year's, 1967. At the suggestion of the Sekere teachers, the Pehleng teachers were invited to joint the workshop. At the request of the education supervisor in the district, teachers from Paliker were also invited to the workshop. (Paliker was neither a control nor an experimental school.)

The workshop involved twelve teachers from the three schools. Four second-year MTEC students assisted two staff members from the curriculum project in the workshop.

The workshop members cooked and ate together and slept at the school.

The content of the workshop sessions included:

1. Demonstration lessons in Ponapean reading
2. Demonstration lessons in the use of the preprimer and primer of the Harper and Row Linguistic Readers
3. Demonstration of the use of the Senyavin Times
4. Demonstration of the use of reading comprehension materials prepared for the reading seminar in Kolonia
5. A lesson in handwriting techniques based on a lesson in the Kolonia seminar
6. Discussion of each demonstration lesson -- its aims, techniques used, its good and bad points
7. A lesson on making stick figures to draw a series of events used to elicit a story from the children for reading
8. A talk by the consultant on Ponape language and culture on Ponapean spelling and the introduction of the first of the new Ponapean readers
9. A talk by the testing specialist on the Curriculum Research staff

on testing in general -- kinds of tests, various purposes of tests, and what could be done with the results of tests -- and on the CRC English Proficiency Pre-test conducted in the schools two months previously

10. An evaluation session with suggestions for future workshops

The Reading Seminar. After observing reading classes in Ponapean and English, at all levels, it became apparent that students did not understand what they were reading. Many were proficient mechanically but were unable to comprehend the material. For this reason, a reading seminar was started for the teachers in Kolonia School including the second-year MTEC students. Unfortunately, distance and travel time prevented rural teachers' attendance.

The seminar was held throughout 1967-68 in alternate weeks. The supervision of the teachers in their classrooms was integrated with the seminar. Frequently a staff member worked closely with a particular teacher during the alternate week to help him get ready to give a demonstration in the seminar. (See Appendix E for seminar summary.)

The TESL Seminar. This seminar was held in the summer of 1967 to introduce teachers in the experimental schools to the Curriculum Research English materials. It was also held three hours weekly during the school years 1967-68 and 1968-69.

The members of this seminar during the school year were teachers of Kolonia Elementary School and second-year MTEC students currently doing supervised teaching in Kolonia School.

The major objective of the seminar was to help these teachers become better teachers of English as a second language. Anything done in this seminar was aimed toward this objective.

A portion of each seminar was used to discuss problems that had arisen that particular week in the use of Curriculum Research materials in the classrooms. Teachers were asked to react to the materials as to whether they were too difficult, too long, culturally unsuitable, too easy, etc. The feed-back received here was helpful in the preparation of other materials.

Occasionally, demonstration classes were used in seminar to show different methods and techniques that could be used in the English classroom. Sometimes these were new techniques and procedures; other times they were procedures that had been observed being used incorrectly in the classroom. These demonstration classes using real children seemed to be by far the best way of introducing new techniques and correcting teacher errors. The particular techniques demonstrated were looked for in future observations of the teachers. (See Appendix F for seminar summary.)

DEVELOPMENT OF CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TESTS

Aims of the CRC Testing Program. (1) The major aim of the Curriculum Research testing program was to evaluate the English curriculum materials which were produced. This evaluation was based on a comparison of the progress made by pupils in learning English language communication skills under the two programs; i.e., the Tate materials and the Curriculum Research materials. Pre-testing in the fall of 1967 and post-testing in the spring of 1968 were done in the Experimental and Control schools.

It was assumed that the Tate materials had been classroom tested and had undergone revisions before being published in their present form. The Curriculum Research materials were first draft materials. They were being classroom tested during the same period when they were being evaluated by the testing program. These materials needed further testing and revision in order to make a fair comparison with the Tate materials. To do this would require extension of the project for this specific purpose.

(2) A second aim of the testing was to test the pupils' proficiency in English and make score groupings available to the schools in order to group them homogeneously so that they could get the fullest benefit from English instruction, if the school chose to group on this basis.

Development of the English Language Proficiency Tests. These tests were developed with the expert consultant service of two teams from the Education Research and Development Center, University of Hawaii. The first draft was developed during the spring of 1967 and pilot tested in August, 1967.

The pilot testing program for the curriculum project started on August 5, 1967, and continued for one month. During that time, one hundred twenty (120) Ponape youngsters were tested, ranging from pre-school to twelfth grade. Thirty-seven (37) Level I tests were administered to students in Grades 4-6. In addition twenty-five (25) Level II tests were administered to students in Grades 7-12.

As a result of the analysis done on individual items, specific subtests and overall Level tests, materials were altered. Certain items were omitted, others addended. Whole sub-tests were deleted, attached to a different level or otherwise changed. Several new sub-tests were constructed and duly pilot-tested. A number of sub-tests were combined. Then, using the experiences of the pilot testers, along with material analysis, final forms of the pre- and post-test for CTC were settled upon and testing manuals written. Although both Ponapean and English were used for instructions at all levels, a preponderant amount of Ponapean was used at Level I.

In September of 1967 this revision of the instruments pilot tested during the summer of Ponape was made in consultation with Dr. Peter Dunn-Rankin, EDRAD, University of Hawaii. The revised instruments were then prepared for the pre-testing which began in the Experimental and Control Schools in October.

This first form of the Curriculum Research Project English Language Proficiency Test included subtests at three Levels. Level I, designed to be used for Grades 1, 2, and 3, subtests included: (1) Aural Comprehension; (2) Aural Discrimination; (3) Oral Production (Mimicry); (4) Oral Reading; (5) Oral Grammar; and (6) Reading Readiness. Five of the subtests were individual while the sixth was group administered.

Level II, Grades 4, 5, and 6, subtests included: (1) Aural Comprehension; (2) Aural Discrimination; (3) Oral Grammar; (4) Oral Production; (5) Oral Reading; (6) Reading Word-Recognition; (7) Reading Comprehension; (8) Structure, Grammar, and Vocabulary; and (9) Free Composition. These were covered in eleven subtests, six of which were individual and five group administered.

Level III, Grades 7 and 8, subtests covered: (1) Aural Comprehension and Discrimination; (2) Oral Production; (3) Oral Reading; (4) Aural Reading Comprehension; (5) Reading Comprehension (including idiomatic expressions); (6) Critical Reading; (7) English Structure, Grammar, and Vocabulary, and (8) Free Composition. This Level was comprised of eight subtests, four individual and four group.

A manual summarizing the three levels of the test and giving instructions in both Ponapean and English was prepared. Examiners and interpreters were trained and classroom teachers briefed before the testing began. Three native English speaking examiners were assisted by three Ponapean interpreters who in some instances also served as recorders.

PRE-TESTING IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SCHOOLS

The testing of students in the Experimental and Control schools was begun on October 4 and completed on November 7, 1967. Testing was suspended during the week of October 24 (United Nations Day) which fell between the testing of the nearby schools and the more distant rural schools. In each school the group tests were administered first, beginning in Kolonia School on October 4 and Ohmine School on October 5. The testing teams returned to do the individual testing at Kolonia School on October 9, 10, and 11 with the individual testing at Ohmine School following on October 12, 13, and 16. Only two examiners were involved in the testing of Sekere students, October 17 through 20; interpreters were from the school staff. The three examiners were each assigned to one of the other rural schools, Mand, Kinakapw and Pehleng, where testing began on October 31 and was completed on November 7, 1967. The six were as follows:

EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOLS	CONTROL SCHOOLS
Kolonia -- District Center	Ohmine -- District Center
Sekere -- Rural (near district center)	Mand -- Rural
Pehleng -- Rural	Kinakapw -- Rural

The group tests were administered to a total of 1099 students while a randomly selected 581 of these were given the individual tests to complete the total battery. There were not sufficient students in some of the rural schools to reach the proposed sample of 25 per level for the individual testing, thus accounting for the 581 subjects rather than the projected 600 sample size.

TABLE 15

SUMMARY OF NUMBER OF SUBJECTS BY SCHOOL AND BY LEVEL GROUP AND TOTAL BATTERY

	LEVEL I		LEVEL II		LEVEL III	
School	Group Only	Total Battery	Group Only	Total Battery	Group Only	Total Battery
1. Kolonia S=300	71	50 T=121	64	50 T=114	15	50 T=65
2. Ohmine S=387	126	50 T=176	113	50 T=163		48 T=48
3. Sekere S=153	48	25 T=73	30	25 T=55		25 T=25
4. Mand S=94	17	25 T=42	5	25 T=30		22 T=22
5. Pehleng S=93	8	25 T=33	15	25 T=40		20 T=20
6. Kinakapw	2	T=22	4	T=29		T=19
Totals S=1099	272	197 T=469	231	200 T=431	15	184 T=199

TABLE 16

TOTAL POSSIBLE SCORES BY LEVELS

	Group Test	Individual Test	Total
LEVEL I TEST Grades 1-3	12	180	192
LEVEL II TEST Grades 4-6	130	213	343
LEVEL III TEST Grades 7-8	130	132	262

TABLE 17

RANGE OF ATTAINED SCORES BY SCHOOLS
TOTAL BATTERY

School	LEVEL I	LEVEL II	LEVEL III
1. Kolonia	32-127	68-268	56-166
2. Ohmine	(36) 0-199	64-308	61-204
3. Sekere	44-155	91-225	56-172
4. Mand	21-123	99-227	39-165
5. Pehleng	36-75	59-161	20-115
6. Kinakapw	29-104	65-179	52-145

A summary of the number of students tested on the group test only and on the total battery, the possible total scores at each level, and the attained scores are given in Tables 15, 16, and 17. The range of attained scores as compared to the possible scores indicates that the range in difficulty of the test items allowed a fair evaluation of the students' abilities.

When the pre-testing was completed all the compositions written at Level II and III were scored by two of the examiners. The subjects were randomly assigned to one of the raters with an equal number per grade and per school being graded by each. A Pearson-Product Moment correlation gave an r_{xy} of .80 between the two raters. (In the post-testing the same rater scored compositions for the same subjects as in the pre-testing.)

Reliability Coefficients of Sub-tests. The coded data was forwarded to the Education Research and Development Center of the University of Hawaii. Their report included a further discussion of the test statistics. The means and standard deviations on the pre-testing statistics received from EDRAD were used to compute internal consistency reliability coefficients. Coefficients for the sub-tests amenable to the Kuder-Richardson formula 20 or 21 are as follows:

Level I	Subtest 1	Aural Comprehension	r_{xx}	.89
	Subtest 2	Aural Discrimination (Minimal pairs)		.85

	Subtest 4	Oral Reading	.94
	Subtest 5	Grammar	.73
	Subtest 6	Reading Readiness	.94
Level II	Subtest 1	Aural Comprehension	.88
	Subtest 2	AC and Discrimination	.18
	Subtest 3	Oral Grammar	.87
	Subtest 6	AD, Minimal Pairs	.89
	Subtest 7	Reading-Word Recognition	.78
	Subtest 8	Reading Comprehension	.78
	Subtest 9	English Structure, Grammar and Vocabulary	.90
Level III	Subtest 2	Aural Comprehension Discrimination	.12
	Subtest 5	Aural Comprehension (From a reading)	.18
	Subtest 6	Reading Comprehension	.78
	Subtest 7	English Structure, Grammar and Vocabulary	.75

Three of the tests showed very low reliability coefficients. These were the Aural Comprehension and Discrimination, Subtest 2 at both Level II and III. At Level II, r_{xx}=.18 and at Level III, r_{xx}=.12. Level III-Subtest 5, Aural Comprehension from a paragraph read to the subjects, had an r_{xx} of .18. The reliability coefficients which had appeared adequate in the pilot testing analysis probably had resulted from the fact that only the better students responded to the call for volunteer subjects.

All of the other subtests appeared to have a good level of reliability.

Use of Tests for Grouping Students. Following the grading of the tests all of the raw scores of each school were plotted by level and by grade. A grouping of the students was made available to each of the six schools. This was explained to the teachers in feed-back sessions which also gave general information gleaned from the item tally which was made to ascertain item difficulty. The groupings prepared gave both an across-the-Level and a within-the-grade standing.

In casual conversation with teachers discussing the groupings mentioned above, it appeared that the instruments were validating the teachers' impression of the students. Repeatedly the teacher would predict or concur with the information given by the grouping procedure. Two teachers made a rating of students from which Spearman Rho correlations were computed. The first was from the teacher of an 8th grade class at Kolonia School and gave a rho=.67 (N=14). The second was of 19 Micronisian Teacher Education Center teacher-students and gave a rho=.52. Both of these correlations are significant at the .01 level.

As part of some work which was done for MTEC instructors to evaluate the instrument used in grouping MTEC students and to suggest possible future procedures some correlations were run between the CRC test and the

Lado TAC (1957). On a sample of 14 Ponape public school teachers and 19 MTEC teacher-students from across the Trust Territory there were coefficients significant at the .05 level (rho-.44 and .47 respectively). However, the correlation mentioned above of .52 for the CRC Test and the teacher's ranking was better than that for the Lado (r=.47). The best combination for predictive purposes in this small sample of 19 proved to be the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT) total score plus the CRC-ELPT total score.

Throughout all aspects of the testing program an effort was maintained to provide standard procedures in all schools and to give equal treatment in the feed-back of general information from the testing. It must be noted, however, that in the Micronesian setting it is extremely difficult to provide as controlled a situation as would be desired. Facilities, teaching staff, languages in use by the children all present widely varying environments.

THE POST - TESTING

The post-testing of students was begun in Kolonia and Ohmine School on April 16. The group tests were administered to all the students in Level II and III at Ohmine School because the information was desired for grouping of the students in the fall. In the other schools the group testing was confined to those who had taken the total battery. A determined effort was made to retest all of the original sample of 581 but due to the mobility of the population, drop-outs, and prolonged absenteeism the sample was further reduced to 486. A few subjects were dropped because of handicaps which were by this time clearly not merely language handicaps. A summary of the number of students by Levels and by Schools is given in Table 8 on p. 66.

In the post-testing the same examiners retested the students whom they had tested in the pre-testing. The schedule followed the same order of the fall testing and was completed on May 16, allowing an interval of approximately six months between pre-and post-testing. As mentioned, the same rater scored the compositions. The coded data was sent to the Education Research and Development Center.

PROGRESS TOWARD REVISION OF THE TESTING INSTRUMENTS

Following the completion of the post-testing an effort was made by the CRC evaluator to review the instruments which were used and to make suggestions toward the improvement of these instruments or the development of a shorter battery for further use in the Trust Territory. Comments were solicited from the examiners and the District TESL Supervisor. The experience in using the present instruments had indicated the strengths and weaknesses of the instruments as they were used during this project.

The evaluator prepared a draft of a proposed revision of the instruments which incorporated only the changes which would facilitate the administering of the tests. (See Appendix G.) This revision was made on the assumption that no further work might be done to develop an even more useful instrument and that to have the present tests prepared for classroom use would be of benefit since few measurement devices are currently available.

The revision drafted included the following types of revision at all levels:

(1) Examiners' and interpreters' forms of the test were developed which eliminated the need for the test manual. (Manual material was incorporated.)

(2) The group tests at all levels were reordered to precede the individual tests. This proved the best approach during the testing as rapport was established toward the testing experience as a whole and the examiner. It was also expected that the group tests could be used by classroom teachers who would not be able nor wish to give the total battery. The individual tests might be helpful to them as time permitted for a better understanding of individual students.

(3) The student form of the test no longer included the entire material of the test on the individual level but only the group tests plus a score sheet. With an answer sheet the group test could be reused.

(4) The group tests were reworked to make answering on an answer sheet a matter of writing a letter on a paper or circling a letter if answer sheets were prepared in advance.

(5) Some of the individual tests were adapted for group use. Those which were pilot tested are included in this form. Suggestions were made for other subtests areas which should be covered by group tests.

(6) Items were reordered according to level of difficulty as determined by the pre-testing.

(7) A few items were eliminated or changed, corrections made, and some changes in pictures indicated.

(8) Changes in instructions in English and Ponapean were made. The top of the page directions in English did not prove adequate. These were deleted and it was suggested that either the local language instructions be included or that they be eliminated and the oral instructions in both languages with the working of examples be depended upon. (This would allow further for the classroom teacher either to ditto an answer sheet where the students would circle a letter or have students prepare their own where they would just write a letter following a number.)

(9) NOTES TOWARD REVISION were made which included general comments, notation of changes made, and further suggested changes. These notes were intended to assist in the development of a more useful instrument for the Trust Territory.

SUMMARY AND EVALUATION OF THE CRC TESTING PROGRAM

Both Aim 1 and Aim 2 of the CRC Testing Program were accomplished.

Pre-testing and post-testing to compare progress in the Experimental and Control schools were done. Feed-back on score grouping was made available, if desired.

For the CRC evaluator, the most rewarding experience was the personal interaction with a good number of the 1099 students group tested, the 581 individually tested in the fall and 486 of those who were given the total battery again in the spring. For the most part the children were not just cooperative but eager to participate in what was obviously a learning experience.

The battery of six sub-tests at Level I, eleven at Level II, and eight at Level III covered aspects of aural comprehension and discrimination, oral production, oral grammar, oral reading, structure, grammar and vocabulary, reading comprehension, and at Level II and III---composition. This rather extensive battery gave opportunity for considerable interaction. Very few of the children seemed unduly apprehensive, which had been one concern before the testing began.

Testing conditions varied from school to school, ranging from excellent in the contract teachers' homes to rather trying in some of the crowded schools with limited facilities. Every effort was made to standarize testing procedures but in the Micronesian atmosphere this would leave something to be desired by U.S. standards. However, in comparison with the usual prevailing conditions the entire testing program seemed most orderly and because of the fine cooperation was carried on with a minimum of disruption of the usual schedule.

The experiences in the schools made obvious many variables which of course were difficult to control, such as facilities, capabilities of teachers both Micronesian and American, differences in time schedules in the schools, dedication or lack of dedication on the part of the teachers to the respective curriculum materials, and general tone of the school.

In reviewing the entire program of curriculum development, the devising of measurement instruments, and the testing program the factor of the short duration of the program was conspicuous. To devise and validate reliable instruments in the short period before the testing began was ambitious. To be testing materials in an experimental situation while the materials themselves were being classroom tested was hardly a fair indication of their full worth. The short period of time between the pre- and post-testing, approximately six months, perhaps did not give adequate time to indicate significant growth with either curriculum, and consequently raises a question regarding the reliability of the resulting comparative data.

Another factor noticed in the post-testing was the difference in tone of the schools as compared with the beginning of the school year. One school where this may not have been true was at Kolonia School where the pre-testing began before they were well under way and the post-testing before the end of the semester atmosphere had taken over. The motivation with which the children approached the post-testing seemed in keeping with the lessened motivation toward learning at the end of the year and may have detracted from the hoped for gains.

Although a revision of the instruments used in this project was prepared, it is expected that a shorter, less subjective test would be of greater use in the present situation. The group tests might very well prove useful in the grouping of children and other group tests could be developed to conserve on time needed for administering the subtests. Some of the tests might be shortened by splitting in half. One of the difficulties in constructing tests at this time in Micronesia is the very fluid situation in regard to the teaching and learning of English and the rather marked difference between the use of English in the district centers as opposed to the rural areas. A subtest which is getting too easy in some schools is still painfully difficult in others--this all on one island. A test for Territory-wide use would be expected to show an even greater range of abilities.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS OF PRE- AND POST-TESTING

Analysis. A 2 x 2 factorial analysis of variance was performed on each of the twenty-five test variables. Geographic area and treatment groups were the major factors and a pre-test was used as a linear covariate in each analysis. The results of this analysis are summarized in Tables 18-23 and graphically presented in Figures 1-25, pp. 103-107.

Results. In each analysis the covariate was significant at the .05 probability level. Tables 19, 21, and 23 illustrate pre- and post-test means. However, on only seven of the 25 variables was there a significant difference between the Experimental and Control treatment groups. In each of the seven cases this difference was in favor of the Control group. These seven variables were concerned with oral production as mimicry and the formation of plurals, and some reading skills. At Level I (Grades 1-3) there were three subtests on which the Control group showed significantly greater gains. They were: Oral Production, mimicry of sentences read by the examiner, Subtest 3; Oral Reading of words from a list, Subtest 4; and Oral Grammar, the formation of plurals, Subtest 5. At Level II (Grades 4-6) the Control group showed greater gain on Oral Production, mimicry, Subtest 4, and Reading, identifying which of two short sentences described an illustration, Subtest 8. At Level III, (Grades 7-8) the Control group showed greater gain on two subtests: Oral Reading, Subtest 4, and Aural Comprehension, which also involved reading to select the correct endings to questions asked about a paragraph read twice to the subjects, Subtest 5.

The rural pre-test means are lower on 23 of the 25 subtests. In the post-testing, however, using an adjusted mean which accounts for initial differences, on only two of the 25 subtests, Level II-2, Aural Comprehension and Discrimination, and Level II-5, Oral Reading, does the urban sample make significantly greater gains. At Level I, Subtest 5, Oral Grammar, the rural sample did significantly better than the town groups.

On three of the subtests the interaction between the treatment and the geographic areas reaches significance. There are two subtests at Level I which show this interaction; Oral Production as mimicry, Subtest 3, and Oral Reading, Subtest 4. At Level II, the Free Composition, Subtest 8 also shows significant interaction. At Level I the interaction between the geographic and treatment variables is significant at the .01 level on the Oral Production, or mimicry subtest. As seen in the graph, Figure 3, p. 103,the Experimental groups did poorly in the rural areas while the Control group did much better in the rural area. In the urban samples the trend is reversed; that is, the Experimental group made better gains than their rural counterparts while the Control group did more poorly than theirs. On the Oral Reading, Subtest 4, Figure 4, p. 103,there is significant interaction (.05 level) with the Experimental group showing up more poorly in the urban area whereas the Control group did better in the urban area. At Level II there is significant interaction (.05 level) between the geographic and treatment variables on the Free Composition, Sub-

TABLE 18

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SUBTEST SCORES USING THE PRETEST AS A COVARIATE TO ADJUSTED MEANS: LEVEL I

		Subtest 1 Aural Comprehension		Subtest 2 Aural Discrimination		Subtest 3 Oral Production (Mimicry)	
Source	df	ss	F	ss	F	ss	F
Geographic Area	1	2.37	.47	1.13	.04	7.56	1.21
Treatment	1	1.37	.27	6.92	.27	956.63	11.82***
G X T	1	3.01	.59	91.25	3.49	600.75	7.42**
Error	135	680.56		3526.63		10,929.87	
Total	138@	687.31		3625.93		12,494.81	

@Source, df, error & total are the same for all level I Subtests.

	Subtest 4 Oral Reading		Subtest 5 Oral Grammar		Subtest 6 Reading Readiness	
	ss	F	ss	F	ss	F
Geographic Area	34.74	1.37	19.52	5.51*	18.70	2.00
Treatment	169.24	6.68**	31.31	8.84**	5.58	.60
G X T	103.76	4.09*	1.08	.31	1.31	.14
Error	3,421.05		478.25		1,257.47	
Total	3,728.79		530.16		1,283.06	

* p.<.05
** p.<.01
*** p.<.001

TABLE 19

MEANS ON SUBTESTS IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SCHOOLS RURAL AND URBAN SAMPLES: LEVEL I

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	9.72	9.70	10.94	10.39	18.88	18.84	17.81	19.39
Post-test	11.92	12.41	13.25	12.81	21.02	23.08	22.31	21.90
Adjusted	5.78	6.27	6.33	6.24	11.81	13.88	13.62	12.44
SUBTEST	1: Aural Comprehension				2: Aural Discrimination			

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	33.97	39.73	40.84	35.55	1.68	0.95	0.62	3.94
Post-test	38.25	52.30	49.59	46.42	3.85	3.30	1.62	10.23
Adjusted	11.68	21.23	17.65	18.62	1.53	1.99	0.76	4.77
SUBTEST	3: Oral Production				4: Oral Reading			

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	0.48	0.57	0.03	0.61	6.45	5.43	5.72	8.29
Post-test	1.52	2.38	1.06	1.84	8.15	8.32	8.78	10.06
Adjusted	1.12	1.90	0.19	1.32	5.45	6.05	6.38	6.59
SUBTEST	5: Oral Grammar				6: Reading Readiness			

TABLE 20

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SUBTEST SCORES USING THE PRETEST AS A COVARIATE TO ADJUSTED MEANS: LEVEL II

		Subtest 1 Aural Comprehension		Subtest 2 Aural Comprehension & Discrimination		Subtest 3 Oral Grammar	
Source	df	ss	F	ss	F	ss	F
Geographic Area	1	17.86	1.31	56.14	17.49***	4.92	.63
Treatment	1	21.55	1.62	1.36	.42	8.34	1.07
G X T	1	16.95	1.25	3.45	1.07	5.51	.71
Error	144	1,960.35		462.15		1,123.40	
Total	147@	2,016.71		523.10		1,142.17	

@Source, df, error, and total are the same for all Subtest: Level II

	Subtest 4 Oral Production (mimicry)		Subtest 5 Oral Reading		Subtest 6 Oral Discrimination		Subtest 7 Reading: Word Discrimination	
Source	ss	F	ss	F	ss	F	ss	F
Geo. A.	2.00	.03	22.89	6.33*	47.19	1.77	.13	.01
Treat.	445.81	6.27*	9.31	2.57	26.94	1.01	16.05	1.63
G X T	504.00	7.09**	.18	.05	1.13	.04	10.23	1.04
Error	10,242.25		520.93		3,843.81		1,418.32	
Total	11,194.06		553.31		3,913.07		1,444.73	

	Subtest 8 Reading		Subtest 9 Reading Comprehension		Subtest 10 English Gr. Stc. & Voc.		Subtest 11 Free Composition	
Source	ss	F	ss	F	ss	F	ss	F
Geo. A.	6.95	2.58	.10	.05	71.00	2.36	90.72	3.16
Treat.	19.65	7.30**	.73	.46	10.50	.35	53.78	1.89
G X T	2.08	.77	.34	.21	.50	.02	178.01	6.26*
Error	387.59		227.36		4330.94		4,096.80	
Total	416.27		228.53		4,412.94		4,419.31	

*p. <.05; **p. <.01; ***p. <.001

TABLE 21

MEANS ON SUBTESTS IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SCHOOLS RURAL AND URBAN SAMPLES: LEVEL II

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	9.55	13.86	16.79	18.74	5.26	5.48	6.03	6.62
Post-test	14.24	17.45	17.97	20.85	5.26	5.23	6.52	7.24
Adjusted	7.39	7.50	5.91	7.41	3.33	3.21	4.22	4.80
SUBTEST	1: Aural Comprehension				2: Aural Comprehension & Discrimination			

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	2.71	4.86	5.10	7.03	27.33	40.80	42.55	39.88
Post-test	5.10	6.98	7.31	8.21	33.40	50.86	48.31	46.00
Adjusted	2.59	2.49	2.60	1.72	13.27	20.81	16.97	16.62
SUBTEST	3: Oral Grammar				4: Oral Production (Mimicry)			

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	2.29	2.39	3.76	4.76	38.86	41.00	44.14	40.50
Post-test	3.26	3.93	5.48	6.82	40.88	43.36	45.76	44.00
Adjusted	1.21	1.79	2.11	2.55	14.78	15.83	16.11	16.80
SUBTEST	5: Oral Reading				6: Oral Discrimination			

TABLE 21 (cont.)

MEANS ON SUBTESTS IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SCHOOLS RURAL AND URBAN SAMPLES: LEVEL II

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	6.83	7.70	9.38	9.88	5.95	5.70	6.79	7.18
Post-test	8.98	9.36	11.10	10.21	6.64	7.05	7.17	8.29
Adjusted	4.86	4.72	5.45	4.25	4.40	4.89	4.61	5.59
SUBTEST	7: Reading: Word Discrimination				8: Reading			

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	0.64	0.55	0.79	2.00	16.55	16.16	21.59	25.91
Post-test	1.12	1.30	1.28	2.18	20.38	20.73	26.07	29.97
Adjusted	0.66	0.91	0.71	0.79	7.07	7.73	8.71	9.13
SUBTEST	9: Reading Comprehension				10: English Structure, Grammar, & Voc.			

	RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	3.55	2.52	8.28	11.71
Post-test	6.26	4.64	8.55	14.06
Adjusted	4.14	3.13	3.60	7.05
SUBTEST	11: Free Composition			

TABLE 22

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SUBTEST SCORES USING THE PRETEST AS A COVARIATE TO ADJUSTED MEANS: LEVEL III

		Subtest 1 Oral Production (Conversation)		Subtest 2 Aural Comprehension		Subtest 3 Oral Production (Mimicry)	
Source	df	ss	F	ss	F	ss	F
Geographic Area	1	2.64	.09	8.95	2.25	12.06	.18
Treatment	1	72.33	2.50	.01	.00	5.92	.09
G X T	1	2.04	.07	10.89	2.74	116.31	1.76
Error	131	3,796.48		520.53		8,656.25	
Total	134$^{@}$	3,873.49		540.38		8,790.54	

@Source, df, error, and total are the same for each subtest at Level III.

	Subtest 4 Oral Reading		Subtest 5 Aural Comprehension		Subtest 6 Reading Comprehension	
Source	ss	F	ss	F	ss	F
Geographic Area	.03	.02	.22	.13	.66	.04
Treatment	12.03	6.59**	7.48	4.47*	2.42	.14
G X T	.00	.00	2.53	1.51	62.89	3.65
Error	239.07		219.21		2,259.01	
Total	251.13		229.44		2,324.98	

*$p. < .05$; **$p. < .01$

	Subtest 7 Eng. Grammar, Strct. & Voc.		Subtest 8 Free Composition	
Source	ss	F	ss	F
Geographic Area	58.06	3.70	66.55	1.89
Treatment	.31	.02	25.87	.73
G X T	.44	.03	63.03	1.78
Error	2,051.13		4,618.06	
Total	2,109.94		4,773.51	

TABLE 23

MEANS ON SUBTESTS IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SCHOOLS
RURAL AND URBAN SAMPLES: LEVEL III

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	9.63	12.77	11.83	12.50	5.37	5.61	6.23	7.02
Post-test	11.51	15.23	12.87	14.52	6.40	5.97	6.93	8.00
Adjusted	5.46	7.19	5.43	6.67	2.66	2.34	2.91	3.46
SUBTEST	1: Oral Production				2: Aural Comprehension			

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	34.31	45.48	39.37	41.77	3.06	4.00	3.80	4.18
Post-test	40.00	50.81	46.73	46.40	4.14	5.42	4.70	5.58
Adjusted	11.29	12.75	13.79	11.45	1.97	2.58	2.00	2.61
SUBTEST	3: Oral Production				4: Oral Reading			

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	1.71	1.61	1.77	1.82	7.51	8.71	9.37	12.25
Post-test	1.86	2.00	1.67	2.42	9.91	12.06	13.07	13.95
Adjusted	1.69	1.88	1.49	2.24	3.31	4.41	4.83	3.18
SUBTEST	5: Aural Comprehension (Read.)				6: Reading Comprehension			

TABLE 23 (cont.)

MEANS ON SUBTESTS IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL SCHOOLS
RURAL AND URBAN SAMPLES: LEVEL III

	RURAL		URBAN		RURAL		URBAN	
Means	E	C	E	C	E	C	E	C
Pre-test	23.49	23.87	25.67	29.45	6.57	8.97	11.13	17.60
Post-test	26.49	26.77	29.47	32.67	10.69	10.19	14.20	19.50
Adjusted	7.89	7.87	9.14	9.36	5.78	3.50	5.90	6.37
SUBTEST	7: English Grammar, Structure, and Vocabulary				8: Free Composition			

test 11, Figure 17, p. 105. The Control groups showed greater increase in the urban area but less in the rural. In the Experimental groups, however, the rural schools made greater gain than the urban.

Discussion. In view of the short period of time, only six months, between the pre- and post-testing, and considering the many obstacles which must be overcome in teaching a second language in difficult conditions, the most encouraging finding of the research was the fact that on all twenty-five variables there was a significant gain made by both the Experimental and Control groups. Related to the overall gains and of encouragement to those teaching in rural schools is the fact that the rural schools in this particular study did surprisingly well. The rural pre-test means are lower on 23 of the 25 subtests than the urban pre-test means. In the post-testing, however, using an adjusted mean which accounts for initial difference, on only two of the twenty-five does the urban sample show greater gains and on one the rural sample gain surpasses the urban. With the greater exposure to English in the town and with better facilities and more accessibility to schools, greater differences in favor of the urban groups might have been predicted.

Some of the differences between the Experimental and Control groups may be explained by interaction with the two different curriculum approaches and the short term nature of the study. The ability to mimic the sentences given by the examiner may well be facilitated by the control curriculum which provides repetitious drill of short English utterances. It is interesting to note that this superiority is not evidenced at Level III, Grades 7-8. (See Table 23, p. 101, Subtest 3, Oral Production.) Though presented with a similar task, the greater gains are made by the Experimental group but do not reach significance at this level.

The Experimental curriculum was committed to teaching reading in the

Figures 1-6: GRAPHIC COMPARIONS OF ADJUSTED MEANS OF EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND CONTROL (C) GROUPS, RURAL AND URBAN AREAS: LEVEL I

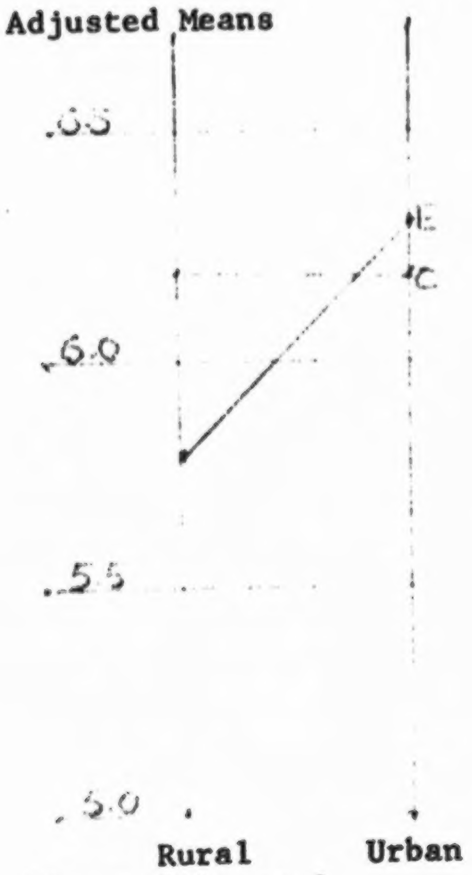


Fig. 1 Subtest 1
Aural Comprehension

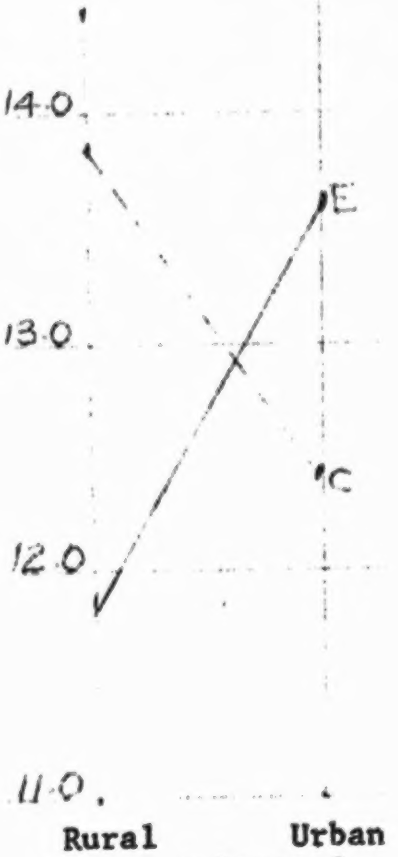


Fig. 2 Subtest 2
Aural Discrimination

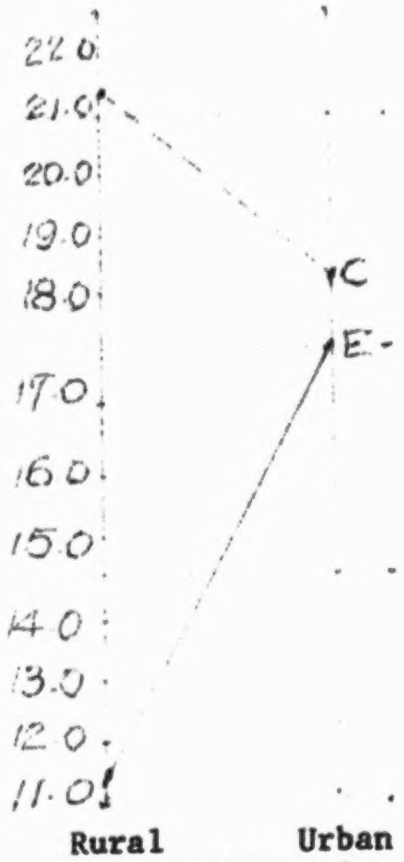


Fig. 3 Subtest 3
Oral Production
(Mimicry)

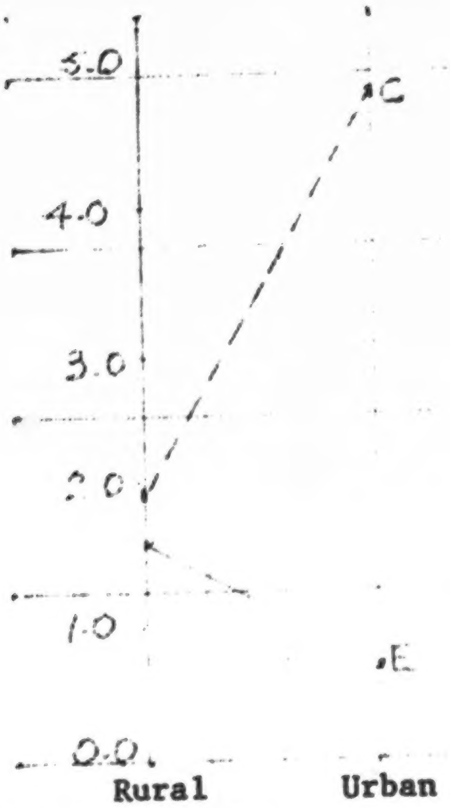


Fig. 4 Subtest 4
Oral Reading

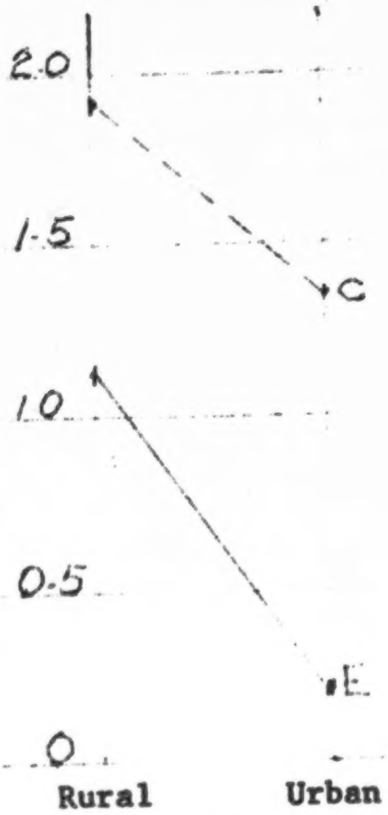


Fig. 5 Subtest 5
Oral Grammar

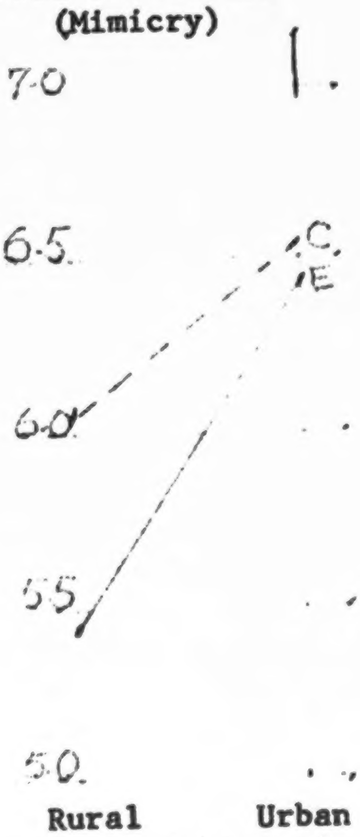


Fig. 6 Subtest 6
Reading Readiness

Figures 7-13: GRAPHIC COMPARISONS OF ADJUSTED MEANS OF EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND CONTROL (C) GROUPS IN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS ON LEVEL II, SUBTESTS 1-7.

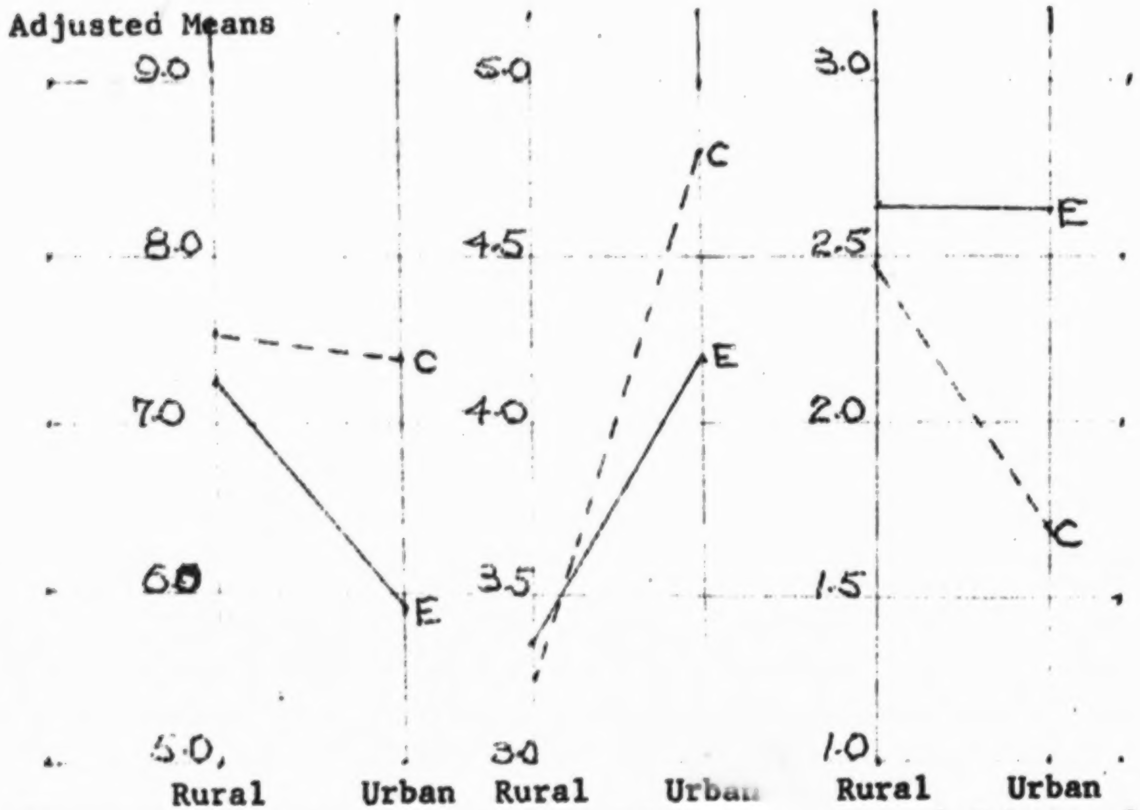


Fig. 7 Subtest 1 Aural Comprehension

Fig. 8 Subtest 2 Aural Comprehension and Discrimination

Fig. 9 Subtest 3 Oral Grammar

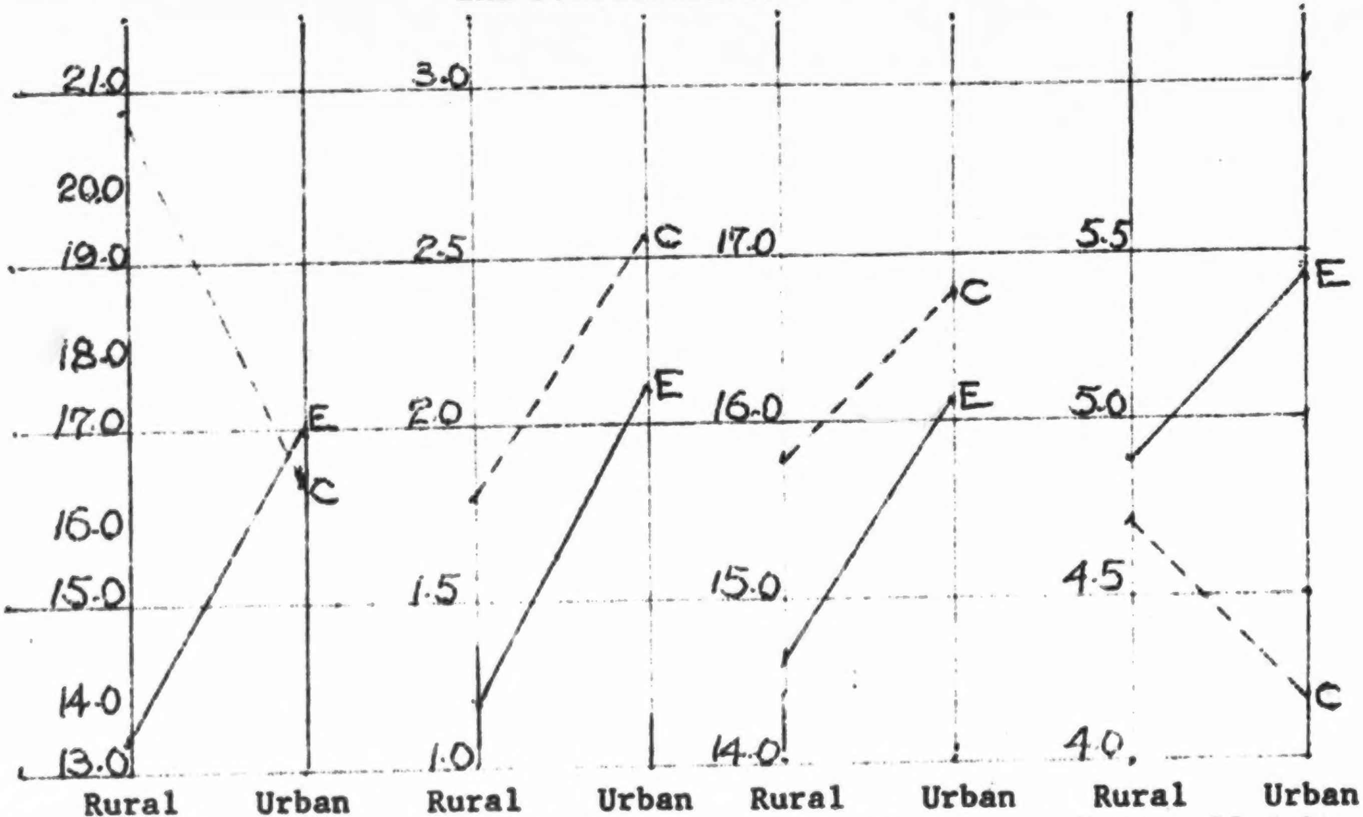


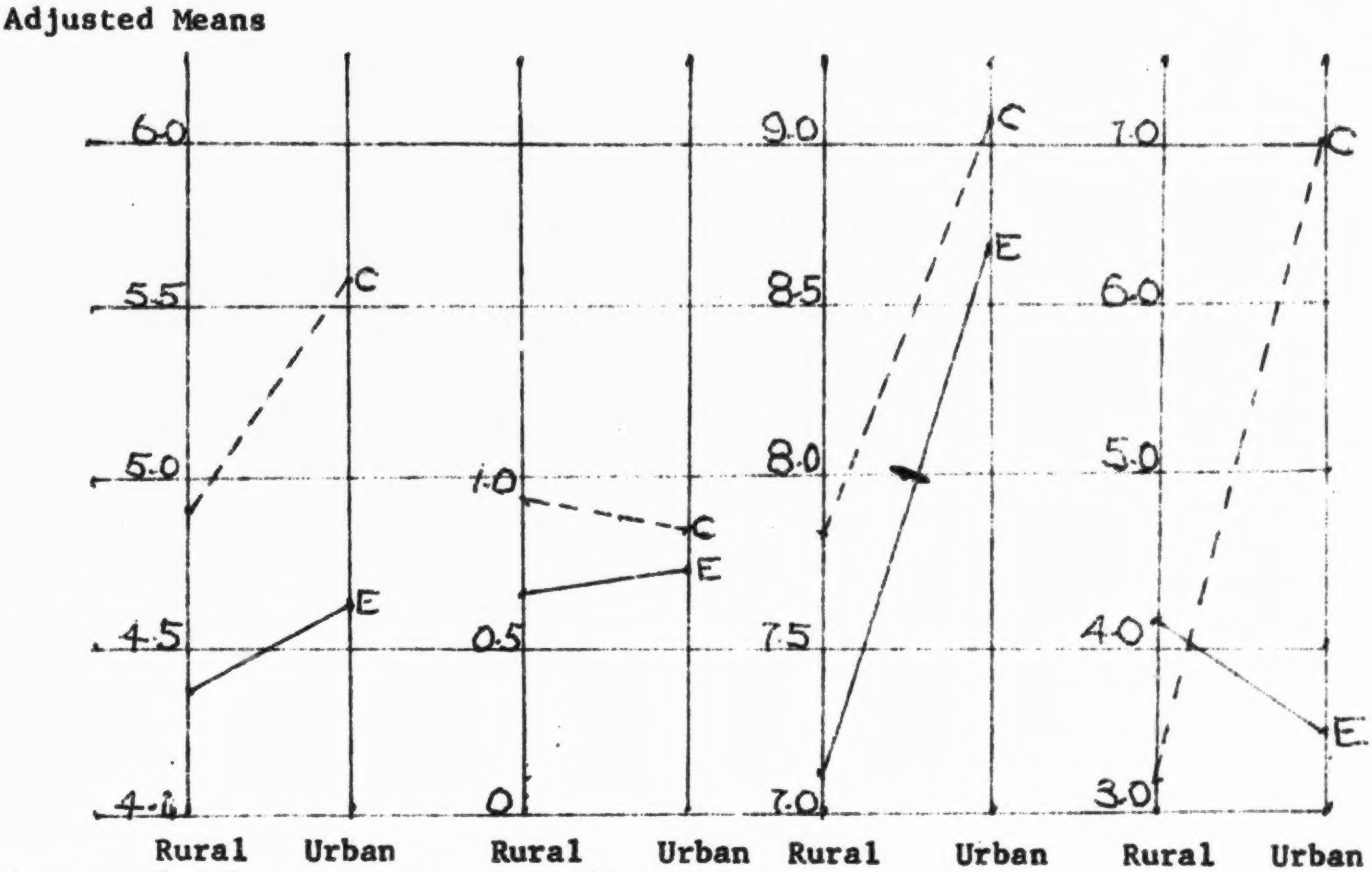
Fig. 10 Subtest 4 Oral Production (Mimicry)

Fig. 11 Subtest 5 Oral Reading

Fig. 12 Subtest 6 Aural Discrimination

Fig. 13 Subtest 7 Reading-Word Recognition

Figures 14-17: GRAPHIC COMPARISONS OF ADJUSTED MEANS OF EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND CONTROL (C) GROUPS IN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS ON LEVEL II (cont.), SUBTESTS 8-11.



* Fig. 14 Subtest 8 Fig. 15 Subtest 9 Fig. 16 Subtest 10 Fig. 17 Subtest 11

* Subtest 8 Reading

Subtest 9 Reading Comprehension

Subtest 10 English Structure, Grammar and Vocabulary

Subtest 11 Free Composition

Figures 18-21: GRAPHIC COMPARISONS OF ADJUSTED MEANS OF EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND CONTROL (C) GROUPS IN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS ON LEVEL III SUBTESTS 1-4.

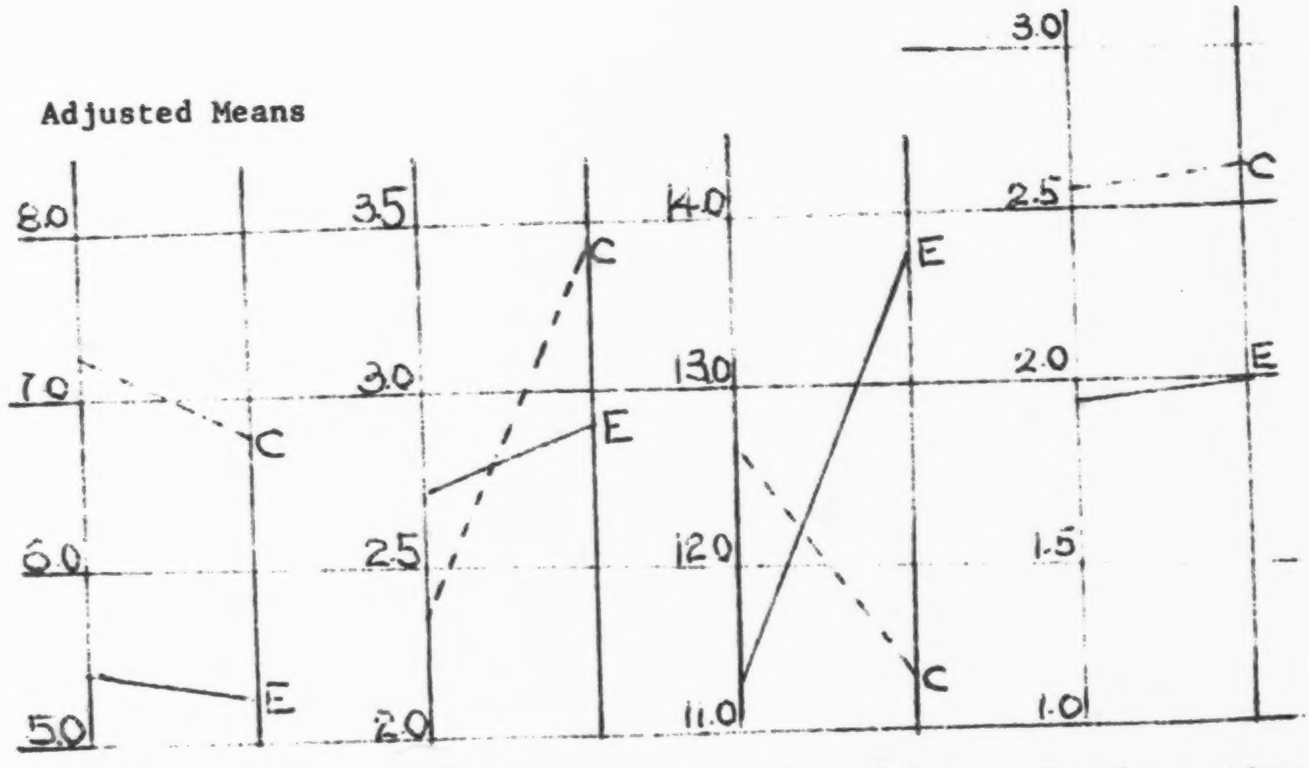


*Fig. 18 Subtest 1 Fig. 19 Subtest 2 Fig. 20 Subtest 3 Fig. 21 Subtest 4

* Subtest 1	Oral Production
Subtest 2	Aural Comprehension & Discrimination
Subtest 3	Oral Production (Mimicry)
Subtest 4	Oral Reading

Figures 22-25: GRAPHIC COMPARISONS OF ADJUSTED MEANS OF EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND CONTROL (C) GROUPS IN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS ON LEVEL III SUBTESTS 5-8.

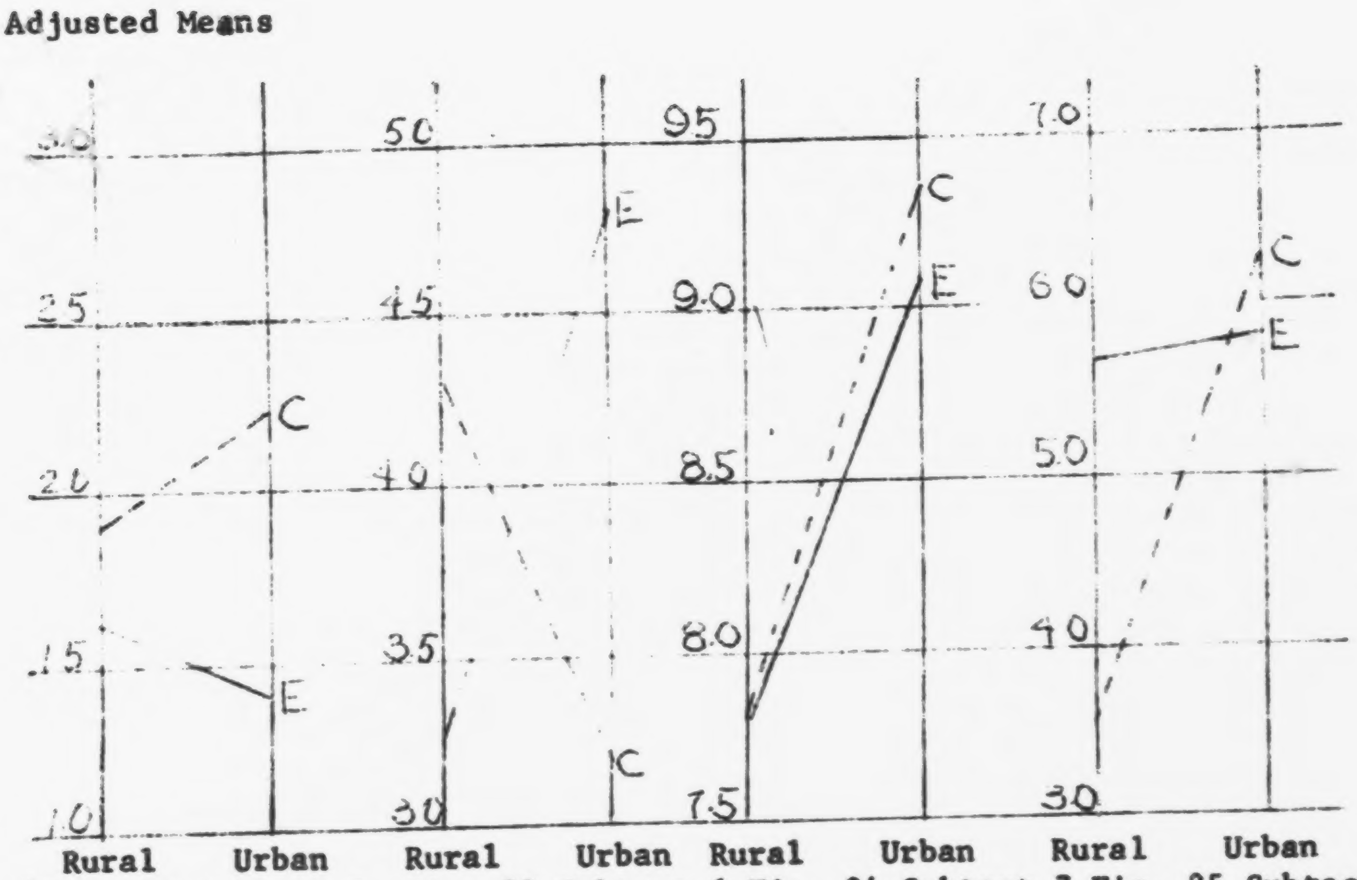


*Fig. 22 Subtest 5 Fig. 23 Subtest 6 Fig. 24 Subtest 7 Fig. 25 Subtest 8

* Subtest 5	Aural Comprehension
Subtest 6	Reading Comprehension
Subtest 7	English Grammar, Structure, & Vocabulary
Subtest 8	Free Composition

vernacular first. The large urban Control school, on the other hand, introduced reading of English in the first three grades. (Actually, it was a fact that the reading of English was taught in Grade 1.) The substantial gain on the oral reading, Subtest 3, from a pre-test mean of 3.94 to a post-test mean of 10.23 (Table 19) may suggest that the students are capable of beginning to read in English. This test, however, indicates whether the child can understandably pronounce words on a list. It did not indicate that the words were comprehended. The use of the word "reading" in the test title which implies comprehension is debatable, particularly when the language is a second one. In terms of long range reading proficiency a vernacular introduction may well prove more beneficial.

It should be noted here that research by Modiano (1967 and 1968) supported the view that "for children for whom bilingualism presents problems, basic skills and concepts should first be taught in their native tongues before or at least during the time that a second language is being learned."

In the Curriculum Research Project the fulfillment of the commitment to teach reading in the vernacular in Grades 1-2 was hampered by the dearth of reading materials in the vernacular other than experience charts.

The extensive research in the Philippines raised serious questions as to whether vernacularization alone guarantees increased learning. One of the major findings of the Rizal experiment was that it was a serious mistake, in terms of English proficiency at end of Grade 3, to delay reading in English until Grade 2 (Davis, 1967, pp. 39-41). Another major conclusion from the Rizal experiment was that the use of English as the medium of instruction in Grades 1-6 brought greater subject matter achievement at the end of Grade 6 than the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction in Grades 1-2 or Grades 1-4 (Davis, 1967, p.84). On the other hand, Samonte (1967) questions the wisdom of letting the native tongue lapse into disuse. She questions the effect both on language development and on social attitudes of young people who may suffer problems of alienation as a result.

The conflicting research results and professional viewpoints indicate the need for more extensive investigation to determine the most effective use of the vernacular in the school program. In the Trust Territory, this question should be examined in the light of Micronesian culture values and social goals as well as the relationship to English proficiency.

At Level II on a silent reading task, Subtest 8, the Control group shows a significantly greater gain and at Level III the Control group shows a greater gain in aural comprehension from a paragraph read aloud to them, Subtest 8. This also incorporates a silent reading task as subjects must select the correct completion of sentences about a paragraph they have heard read twice. Thus the significant differences in gain which appear between the two curriculum approaches are limited to the area of controlled oral production, mimicry at two levels and formation of plurals at one, and four reading skills subtests---one at Level I, one at Level II and two at Level III.

There are three subtests which showed a significantly greater difference in gain between the rural and urban samples--two in favor of the urban and one in favor of the rural sample. At Level I this was Subtest 5, Oral Grammar which is the formation of plurals (10 items). Here the gain was in favor of the rural sample. There is the possibility, however, of some extraneous variables at work. In two of the rural schools, Sekere (E) and Mand (C), the majority of the children are from other than Ponapean language speaking families. These two other languages, Mortlockese and Pingelapese, tend to have more of an "s" sound with the final consonants which may either make it easier for them to learn the proper English forms or may be mistaken for giving the correct form (which it actually would be according to sound) whether or not the student was aware of its formation. Also in the rural testing situation there was a greater opportunity for the teacher inadvertantly to hear parts of the testing procedure and she could have consciously (or unconsciously) emphasized these plurals in the intervening period. The nature of this subtest would make this an easier thing to do than in most of the other subtests. At Level II on a similar subtest (No. 3) the rural means are again higher than the urban means though the difference does not reach significance. At Level II this oral grammar subtest includes in addition to the plurals some changes in tenses and the comparison of an adjective (20 items).

At Level II the urban samples show a significantly greater (.001 level) gain on Subtest 2 which is aural comprehension and discrimination. This may be partially accounted for by the town bias in the content of the sentences and the corresponding illustrations, e.g. "jeep", picture of truck, boat "for sale", etc. The same subtest (No. 2) at Level III (Table 23, p. 101) shows the urban sample also with higher means though the difference does not reach significance. At Level II on Subtest 5, Oral Reading, there is a significantly greater gain (.05 level) by the urban group. This may reflect a greater emphasis upon reading in the larger urban schools.

As noted in the results, there was significant interaction between the geographic and treatment variables at Level I on the Oral Production subtest (No. 3). The experimental groups did poorly in the rural area while the Control did much better in the same area. In the urban sample the trend is reversed. Factors other than treatment may be at work here. In one of the rural Experimental schools the facilities made it difficult to conduct the types of oral group drills and other activities which should have contributed to improvement in this skill. The classrooms were so poorly divided that the noise between groups presented the teacher with definite limitations. In addition, it may well be expected that the urban groups would make better gains with their everyday exposure to English being greater, so it is the trend of the Control group rather than the Experimental which is more to be accounted for. A fair segment of the urban Control sample are children for whom English is a third language. At least one of these languages (Kapingamarangi) is considerably unlike Ponapean and even less similar to English in pronunciation. Also at this Level (I, Grades 1-3) in the urban Control school the children appeared to be involved more in learning reading. Perhaps correspondingly less time was given to oral drills.

On the Level I Oral Reading, Subtest 4, there is a similar interaction pattern with the Experimental group showing up more poorly in the urban area whereas the Control group did better in the urban than in the rural. This again may reflect the difference in the teachers' approach or the ability level of the children.

The children's age is another factor which might have contributed to the lower performance level of the Experimental group on some tests. There was a wider age range in the Experimental classes than in the Control classes in all levels in all schools. In Level I, 13-year-olds were found in the Experimental schools; in Level II, 18-year-olds; and in Level III, 23-year olds. In general, the Control classes did not have as many overage pupils. Many of these overage pupils may have been 10-year-olds when they entered school. At the lower end of the age distribution, there were more 6- and 7-year-olds in Level I in the Control schools; more 9- and 10-year-olds in Level II in the Control schools than in the Experimental schools; and so on. In the Rizal experiment in the Philippines (Davis, 1967), it was found that the older a pupil is when he enters school, the lower his achievement tends to be. These data seem to tell us that children who are overage when they enter school never quite make up the learning deficit and may have a slower rate of learning. This hypothesis needs to be tested by longitudinal research in Micronesia.

Another instance of significant interaction between the geographic and treatment variables is seen at Level II on the Free Composition, Subtest 11. The Control urban school shows a greater gain than the Control rural sample while the Experimental rural schools made greater gain than the urban sample. The Control trend is not surprising. The Control urban school has at Level II (and III) a group of children who have had the most continuous opportunity yet afforded Ponapean children to learn English from a native speaker since the beginning elementary grades. Among them are some of the most advanced students in English, for their age, on the island. With the stronger foundation already laid, it would be anticipated that they could make greater progress in writing skills. In the experimental groups, however, the reverse is true; that is, the rural schools made greater gain in the adjusted mean though in actual performance the town children are still performing at a higher level as they were in the pre-testing. It is a credit to these rural teachers that they were able to accelerate the rate of improvement in view of the need for great improvement in written English.

The findings which have been summarized here are based upon linearly adjusted means which take into account the differences between the groups based upon their standing in the pre-testing. It is interesting to note, however, that in nine out of the ten cases where a significant difference between Control and Experimental treatments or between rural and urban samples is evidenced a higher pre-test mean is also observed. The one instance where this is not true is the case where there is the least difference, only .05, between the Control and the Experimental pre-test means. (Subtest III-5, Aural Comprehension, Table 23, p.101).

It is beyond the scope of the current research to pursue the question of the possible difference in the rate of learning between the two groups but these findings suggest that the Control group had greater initial ability and that this acted in a dynamic or non-linear way. In this regard it should be noted that a breakdown of the pre-test means shows that on 37 of the 50 pre-test means (Tables 19, 21, and 23) the Control samples were higher than their counterparts in the Experimental sample, while the Experimental were higher in 13 instances. The breakdown by Levels is interesting: at Level I the Control was higher on 6 subtests and the Experimental on 6; at Level II the Control samples were higher on 16, the Experimental on 6; while at Level III the Control schools were higher on 15 and the Experimental only on 1.

Numerous research studies (Deutsch and Brown, 1963; Deutsch, 1965; Bruner, Olver, and Greenfield, 1966) support the hypothesis of increasing quantitative and qualitative deficits in language and cognitive development resulting from unfavorable environmental circumstances. This suggests that the rate of learning is retarded in children who enter school with a deficit resulting from an unfavorable environment, and conversely the rate of learning is accelerated in children who enter school with more advanced levels in language and cognitive development resulting from a favorable environment. This hypothesis needs to be tested by longitudinal research.

A similar breakdown within the Control and Experimental samples shows that in the Control group the urban sample had higher pre-test means on 20 subtests while the rural schools were higher on 5. In the Experimental samples the breakdown was similar with 21 higher means in the urban school and 4 in the rural group. In looking at the adjusted means following the post-testing the picture changes. In this case the Control urban sample has 13 higher adjusted means while their rural sample is higher on 12. In the Experimental samples the urban group is still higher on 19 subtests with the rural higher on 6. Although no statistical evaluation has been made of the significance of these differences, the data may suggest that the Experimental curriculum is functioning more to the advantage of (or more efficiently in) the urban population and that the Control materials are better suited to the rural population. It is possible that the highly simplified Control materials suit the developmental pattern of rural students.

In studies of the language and cognitive development of rural and urban children in Mexico (Bruner, Olver, and Greenfield, 1966) marked differences were found both in the degree and the nature of development. The rural children fell far behind in more abstract learnings while the urban children were more sophisticated linguistically and more abstract. Research in Micronesia is needed to identify differential patterns of development and needs, and their effect on curriculum.

Summary. The findings of the Curriculum Research Testing Program show significant gains made between the pre- and post-testing under both Experimental and Control curriculum. On only two of the twenty-five subtests did the urban group make significantly greater gains than the rural group and on one test the rural sample made greater gains than the urban sample. Of the 25 subtests only 7 showed significantly greater gains according to a treatment. In all seven cases this was in favor of the Control treatment. It should be noted, however, that these seven differences were limited to oral production as mimicry, the formation of plurals, and four reading subtests. On three of the subtests there was shown to be significant interaction between geographic areas and treatment. Some extraneous variables which may have influenced the results have been noted, together with their possible effects, and relevant research has been cited.

Because the findings of the Curriculum Research Project are based upon a short term evaluation of the materials, they should be considered inconclusive. The ambitious aims of producing, classroom testing, revising and evaluating the research materials within the course of a year should not preclude further use and evaluation of the research materials over a long period of time. The entire thrust of the Curriculum Research Project was greatly modified when a published curriculum, the TATE Oral English, was introduced for territory-wide use as the Curriculum Research materials were also being introduced. These two approaches had much in common and reduced the expected differences between the Experimental and Control groups.

Both the Curriculum Research and the Tate materials should be re-evaluated after each has been given sufficient time to show its strengths and weaknesses. This would also provide an evaluation of the progress made by the students under the two programs which could be fairly attributed to the materials under consideration. The testing done as a part of the current research assessed gains which could reflect the influence of previous curriculum approaches.

Because the Curriculum Research Project was designed and carried out in unusual circumstances, other variables which were not controlled should be mentioned. Foremost is the teacher variable. Research suggests that certain teachers foster better results regardless of materials used. In the current analysis there is no way of knowing how much of the gain can be attributed to the teacher's rather than the materials' effectiveness. Since there was a great deal of freedom on the part of teachers, particularly American contract teachers, to use their designated curriculum according to their own interpretation, the teacher variable may contaminate an objective evaluation of the two curriculum approaches in two ways. First, the teachers may vary in ability to make the materials meaningful and they may also vary in their dedication to the designated curriculum. They may have introduced other materials or approaches not specified as Experimental or Control.

Some potential test gains may have been absorbed into the pre-test scores of one of the rural Experimental schools. This school, which was quite accessible to the district center, had provided subjects for the pilot testing in the summer. This may have resulted in the gain from learning "how-to-take the test" being incorporated in the pre-test score. This was possibly true in the Experimental urban school but would have been smaller percentage of the total sample.

In regard to the test instruments it should be said that at least the Oral Reading subtest, Level 1-4, should not have been included because both curriculum approaches were committed to not teaching the reading of English until oral English ability and reading in the vernacular were established. It was therefore a spurious criterion.

Three of the tests showed very low reliability coefficients. These were the Aural Comprehension and Discrimination, Subtest 2 at both Level II and III. At Level II, $r_{xx}=.18$ and at Level III, $r_{xx}=.12$. Level III-Subtest 5, Aural Comprehension, from a paragraph read to the subjects, had an $r_{xx}=.18$. The reliability coefficients which had appeared adequate in the pilot testing analysis had probably resulted from the fact that only better students responded to the call for volunteer subjects. The Aural Comprehension and Discrimination, Subtest 2 had a town-bias and figured in the significant difference between the Experimental and Control samples. For those who found these subtests difficult, there was always the opportunity for guessing which may have contributed to the unreliability.

The bi-lingual/multi-lingual factor was recognized but only partially controlled. This affected the standardization of the testing procedures. Considerable care was given, since the evaluator knew Ponapean and had the assistance of an informant, to preparing test directions in Ponapean, the major language of the island. A good many of the children were not from Ponapean speaking homes, however, and required further translation of these directions into one of three or four other languages. This was done with the assistance of a teacher on the school staff, who also spoke that language, giving the directions in the third language. It was evident that these instructions could not be considered as standardized as the Ponapean instruction were intended to be.

There is always the possibility when doing research in actual classroom situations that the physical conditions prevailing for both teaching and testing will vary. In the Trust Territory there is great variation in school facilities and this was true in the Experimental and Control schools. Also climatic conditions may have played a part as tropical rains make many types of instruction impossible in some of the schools.

The probable negative effect on the research results of the wider age range and the number of overage pupils in the Experimental schools compared to the Control schools has been pointed out. The possible differential rates of learning as well as levels of achievement have been noted. In addition, there is a great need for the development of teaching-learning materials in the vernacular if it is to be used effectively in the instructional program. Altogether, the needs for curriculum research and development are enormous.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

ACCOMPLISHMENT OF PROJECT OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the Curriculum Research Project as stated in the original plan were:

1. To evaluate the current status of English instruction and proficiency in English Aural Comprehension, Speech, Reading and Writing for Micronesian pupils and teachers in Ponape District in Grades 1-12 to assist in planning curriculum and implementing it in the schools.

2. To develop instructional materials and sequential curriculum for an audiolingual approach to language learning, basing curriculum and methodology on analysis of key English structures and on problems in learning English communication skills in Ponape District.

Both objectives have been accomplished, the effectiveness of the Experimental curriculum tested, and the results reported in Chapter 4 and 6.

CURRENT STATUS OF ENGLISH INSTRUCTION

In Objective No. 1, the findings concerning the current status of English instruction in the spring of 1967, when the survey was made, included a number of significant facts which should be used as a basis for educational planning.

Significant Findings Concerning Instructional Materials.

1. The great dearth of all kinds of published materials to serve the schools of Ponape District left the teachers without the help of suitable instructional materials.

2. The available textbooks, workbooks, teachers' guides, films, and filmstrips were almost all oriented to middle class American culture, and were not suitable for Micronesian children, particularly in the primary grades.

3. The lack of depth in the teachers' background interfered with their use of instructional materials available in the environment, their development and use of teaching aids and pupil activities, their adaptation of such instructional materials to the maturity level of the children, and their use of methodology based on sound principles of learning.

4. Some instructional materials in the vernaculars and teaching materials suited to the Micronesian cultures had been developed by elementary supervisors and committees of teachers, but these ef-

forts had been cut off by the Territorial policy of beginning to teach English in the first grade. This policy had been interpreted in most schools in Ponape District as meaning that the materials in the vernacular were to be discarded and all instruction carried on in English. This left the teachers with suitable instructional materials in neither the vernacular nor in English.

5. The introduction of TESL theory and practice into the Trust Territory had helped to fill this vacuum, but the adaptation of instructional materials to local situations and cultures was needed.

6. The Trust Territory policy of teaching English in Grade 1 needed to be clarified, including the policy that learning aural comprehension and speech skills in English should proceed concurrently with learning to read and write in the vernacular in the lower grades.

7. The policy of development of literacy in the vernacular as a basis for the development of literacy in English needed to be clarified, as well as the policy of maintaining the Micronesian languages as the first language and teaching English as a second language.

8. Instructional materials and teachers' guides needed to be developed to teach the vernacular languages, a task which required as a prior step the establishment of a standardized orthography for each vernacular.

9. Work was going on locally in various places under various auspices to develop curriculum materials and detailed guides in various subjects in the form of model lesson plans suited to the Micronesian setting. These efforts needed to be encouraged; expert curriculum leadership provided to establish common objectives and overall curriculum structure; financial support given; and the materials disseminated to the schools.

10. Intensive teacher training was urgently needed to help teachers make intelligent use of available instructional materials, and to participate in the development of other materials suited to the Micronesian environment.

Significant Findings Concerning Curriculum Sequence in Teaching English Language Skills. The curriculum survey questionnaire was structured to find out what the teachers considered the most effective sequence in teaching the four basic language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in both Ponapean and English.

1. The Ponapean teachers placed learning the reading skills in English first; the writing skills in English second; the speaking skills in Ponapean third; and the listening skills in English

fourth.

2. The American teachers placed learning the listening skills in English first; the speaking skills in English second; the reading skills in English third; and the writing skills in English fourth.

3. The American teachers had been trained in TESL whereas the Ponapean teachers had not. This undoubtedly resulted in a difference between the sequences of teaching language skills suggested by the two groups of teachers.

4. The fact that the American teachers indicated no place in the sequence of language learning for the learning and use of Ponapean language skills suggested a lack of depth in understanding how vernacular skills can be developed concurrently with beginning skills in English.

5. The fact that the Ponapean teachers listed the speaking skills in Ponapean third in the sequence indicated their awareness of the importance of developing skills in Ponapean somewhere in the process of learning communication skills.

6. Both Ponapean and American teachers seemed confused as to the place which the vernacular languages were to have in Micronesian schooling and social goals. The development of literacy in the vernacular and the maintaining of the Micronesian language as the first language with English as the second language had not been announced as clear official policy at that time.

7. The social imbeddedness of language, its integral relation to the cognitive process, and its relationship to attitudes toward both self and others apparently was not recognized. There was a great need to examine the social and cognitive effects of leaving out the teaching of the vernacular.

Significant Findings Concerning the Use of Key English Structures and Sequence in Teaching. The degree to which a planned sequence of key English structures was used in teaching and whether a common pattern was used by all the teachers were considered important points in methodology to examine.

1. The approach most frequently used by both Ponapean and American teachers was: "I select and make up a list of word and sentence forms in pre-planning for my teaching."

2. An equal number of American teachers checked the following statement as had checked #1: "I follow a general order but I use it in relation to the English language word and sentence forms and contrast in patterns needed in class work at the time."

3. There was not a set of key English structures nor sequence carefully designed and in common use by the teachers.

4. It seems very doubtful that teachers with little or no training in TESL would be able to teach English skills effectively in this instructured fashion.

Significant Findings Concerning the Basic Elements of Methodology.

1. The teachers tried to choose teaching techniques in terms of pupils' maturity and proficiency in English language skills.

2. The teachers' uncertainty regarding basic theoretical questions pertaining to the learning process detracted seriously from the entire instructional program.

3. Clarification of the most effective use to make of Ponapean and/or American culture was needed.

4. Culture items such as Ponapean legends needed to be made available in recorded form.

5. Study and clarification of the complex processes of learning to read with understanding and to communicate ideas in writing were needed for teaching literacy in the vernacular and in English.

6. The need for more adequate teacher training was urgent.

Summary of the Current Status of English Instruction in a Sampling of Schools of Ponape District. The level of adequacy of English instruction seemed to be very low at the time this survey was made in spring, 1967. The paucity of published instructional materials and of materials developed locally to fit the local situation was a grave handicap. Confusion regarding the interpretation of the Trust Territory policy of beginning the teaching of English in Grade 1 and uncertainty as to whether literacy in the vernacular was to be taught at all created a situation in which literacy was taught in neither language in some situations. A carefully structured English curriculum including model lesson plans was needed. Adoption of a standard orthography and the development of instructional materials in Ponapean, especially reading, were urgently needed. Above all, a greatly increased teacher education program was needed in the Trust Territory.

MICRONESIAN TEACHERS' ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

The second part of the current status study was an investigation of the proficiency in English of a sampling of the Micronesian elementary school teachers. The sample included a total of 165 elementary school teachers drawn from both Experimental and Control schools, other schools in Ponape District, and elementary teachers from other districts studying at the Micronesian Teacher Education Center.

The Lado Test of Aural Comprehension had been administered to more of the teachers in the five sample groups than any other instrument. The Lado Test was also administered to the Trust Territory high school juniors and seniors in 1966 and 1967, thus giving a student reference group; and therefore the proficiency norms established for the Lado Test were used.

A sample of 118 Micronesian teachers from across the Trust Territory who had recent Lado scores available scored from 33 to 95 per cent with a mean of 69.6 per cent. The lowest proficiency group whose scores fall at 69 or below are not ready to undertake academic work when English is the medium of instruction, and 44.4 per cent of the teachers earned scores below 69.

The 70 to 79 per cent score group, which included 19 per cent of the 118 teachers, understand English sufficiently well to begin work in their fields of interest on a full time basis.

Those with scores of 90 per cent or above are judged to understand English without apparent difficulty.

The Curriculum Research Contract English Language Proficiency Test includes reading comprehension and the writing of a composition as well as aural comprehension and oral production. In the CRC ELPT, the top score earned by the teachers was 44 points below the total possible score, whereas on the aural tests some came near to 100 per cent.

On a sample of the subjects' written English on the CRC ELPT Level III Subtest 8, the teachers of Group III had a mean score of 17.7 out of a possible 50 points and the teachers of Group IV a mean of 25.1. These low mean scores indicate the serious limitations which most of the teachers have in writing English.

It is pertinent to compare the Trust Territory test results of 265 scholarship applicants in 1966 and 1967 on the Test of English as a Foreign Language with a comparison norm group of 14,261 foreign students seeking admission to college in the United States. The scholarship applicants were not actual teachers but might become teachers. The Micronesian applicants exceeded the other foreign students in only one subtest, Listening Comprehension. On English Structure and Vocabulary the Micronesians fell below the other foreign students, and on Reading Comprehension and Writing Ability the difference was even more marked. These comparisons suggest the need to place more stress on other areas of language learning besides the aural-oral, particularly Reading Comprehension and Writing Ability which fell quite low.

A detailed analysis of the speech pronunciation difficulties of Micronesian teachers is included in Appendix C, pp. 170-71. No analysis was made of the problems in other aspects of oral production such as intonation patterns, syntax, and vocabulary.

A comparison of 118 Micronesian elementary teachers with 394 Trust Territory high school seniors showed the teacher sample on a higher level of proficiency than the students, on the whole, although there was overlapping of individuals in the total range.

Continuing intensive work in English, especially English Reading and Writing is urgently needed both by teachers and by high school students.

It is recommended that the approach to teaching English Reading and Writing and the amount of time devoted to it at all school levels be examined in order to plan more effective work in this area. Each district should take the responsibility for continuing intensive work in all areas of English skills, including intensive work with teachers. As long as students and teachers operate at the low proficiency levels evidenced in the test scores of the 1966 and 1967 Trust Territory testing program, a severe handicap will be suffered by learners in their use of English language skills as the basic tools for learning. Research has shown that pupils whose language skills are arrested at a low level are also arrested or severely hampered in their development of ability to abstract, to conceptualize, to think creatively and critically.

If this is so, the future development of the Trust Territory through the development of its human resources will be significantly affected by the schools' work in this area.

CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TESTS

The tests developed for the specific experimental situation were rather time consuming because many were individual tests. They might not prove suitable for wide use across the Trust Territory in their present form. A more compact package could be developed, using the work to date as a starting point.

It would seem advisable to adapt as much as possible to group testing. This is most difficult at Level I where the children are not expected to read or write in English. However, even at this level all but the first grade seemed capable of understanding and taking group tests. The use of the revised form can be recommended both for grouping classes for instruction and for classroom use by the English teachers, using only the group subtests which have been reordered to form the first tests at each level. The individual tests might be helpful as time permits for a better understanding of the individual student.

The material originally included in a manual has been incorporated into the examiners' and interpreters' form of the test. It is expected that the student forms could be used repeatedly and therefore an answer sheet is proposed with no writing on the student form. The answer sheet could be developed and duplicated when the exact form of the test is decided.

A more concise test which might be developed could possibly include a picture choice vocabulary test, a group comprehension test at each level, and some of the group tests of the original battery with the longer 50-item subtest split in half.

With the lack of tests suitable for use in the Micronesian setting, it would seem that the CRC tests should be revised further, field tested on larger numbers of children, and norms established. This would provide a useful standardized test of English proficiency for use in the Trust Territory.

CRC CURRICULUM FOR ORAL ENGLISH

Objective No. 2 in the original curriculum development and research plan has been accomplished with the production of Books 1-10, but with the amendment of cutting off the development of instructional materials and sequential curriculum at the end of Grade 6 instead of Grade 12. These materials are sufficient for classes through Grade 8 in the present stage of English language development in the Trust Territory. Good published materials are available for use in Grades 9-12.

A strict audiolingual approach has been modified in certain ways, although the sequence of emphasis on aural comprehension, oral production, reading, and writing has been retained. A thorough contrastive analysis of Ponapean and English has not been made. Curriculum and methodology have been based on an analysis of key English structures, on recommended TESL methods, and on problems in learning English communication skills in Ponape District. The use of the direct method of presentation, a very strict sequence in the teaching of English structure, and concentrated drill on small pieces of structure has been replaced by a combination of picture, story, and dialog which show the use of a structure in a more natural situation appropriate to Ponapean culture and environment. Children are exposed to much listening to narratives for comprehension, ex--tracting a particular structure for production but hearing some structures for review and others for the purpose of recognition of structures to come. Pronunciation practices, rhymes, songs, and physical education activities are also incorporated into the lessons. Reading and writing materials are incorporated into Books 7-10 as reinforcement of the oral structures taught.

The CRC experimental approach was compared in the research to the Tate Oral English Course and Syllabus adopted by the Trust Territory as the approved TESL curriculum [illegible]he schools. This adoption was announced by Administrative Directive N[illegible]-4 dated June 20, 1967. Both the CRC and the Tate materials propose approximately two years of oral English instruction while children learn to read and write in their native language before they learn to read and write English. However, the Tate approach is much more the conventional audio-lingual approach with much drill on very simple pieces of structure presented by the direct approach.

Achievement tests have been prepared for the CRC materials and inserted at the end of each unit. These should serve to measure children's progress, to diagnose needs, and to identify items in the materials which need adoptation.

EXPERIMENTAL HYPOTHESIS

The CRC English instructional materials are predicated on the assumption that children are capable of more complexity than the Tate materials provide, and that language is not a set of habits learned by imitation. Children learning a second language must be exposed to enough utterances to help them catch on not only to the arrangement of words in sentences but also to the process of sentence combining. Thus they learn to understand and say English sentences which they have never heard before, but which are within their developmental range of sentence combining processes. These premises are supported by recent research in language and verbal development.

The theoretical point of view just stated was expressed in the following guide lines in the development of curriculum:

Guide 1: Children should be exposed to much listening experience in which they are introduced to new and more complex structures and hear them repeatedly in a meaningful context before direct teaching and drill on these structures.

Guide 2: Curriculum materials should be oriented to the Ponapean culture in which they will be used.

Guide 3: Effort should be directed toward teaching literacy in the Ponapean language and finding ways of using it to support the learning of English communication skills.

Guide 4: A large amount of visual aids, realia, activities, and other teaching aids should be included in the curriculum materials used as part of the learning process to stimulate interest, develop meaning, and extend and reinforce learning.

Predicated on the assumptions about language and language learning embodied in the CRC curriculum materials, it was hypothesized that such materials would produce better progress in learning English than the Tate materials for Ponapean children.

Testing of this hypothesis was done in the 1967-68 school year, using an experimental-control school design in a sampling of elementary schools in Ponape District. Pre-testing and post-testing were done, using the Curriculum Research English Proficiency Tests developed for use in the experimental situation. A random sampling of the school population in the experimental and control schools furnished the data for the analysis of the research results.

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

A 2X2 factorial analysis was performed on each of the twenty-five test variables. Geographic area and treatment groups were the major factors and the pretest was used as a linear covariate in each analysis.

The data resulting from the testing program rejected the hypothesis that the CRC English curriculum materials would produce better progress in learning English than the Tate materials for Ponapean children.

The children in both the Experimental and Control treatment groups made significant gains under their respective English programs.

In each analysis the covariate was significant at the .05 probability level. However, on only seven of the twenty-five test variables was there a significant difference between the Experimental and Control groups. In each of the seven cases this difference was in favor of the Control group. These seven variables were concerned with oral production as mimicry, the formation of plurals, and some reading skills.

In three of the subtests the interaction between the treatment and the geographic areas reached significance. At Level I the interaction between the geographic and treatment variables was significant at the .01 level on the Oral Production or mimicry subtests, with the Experimental groups doing poorly in the rural areas and the Control groups doing much better. The reverse was true in the urban area. On the Oral Reading, Subtest 4, there was significant interaction at the .05 level, with the Experimental group doing more poorly in the urban area while the Control group did better in the urban area. At Level II there was significant interaction at the .05 level on the Free Composition, Subtest 11, with the Control groups showing greater increase in the urban area while the Experimental groups made greater gain in the rural area.

In the rural schools the gains were surprisingly good. Using an adjusted mean in the post-testing to account for initial differences, on only two of the twenty-five variables did the urban sample surpass the rural, while on one the rural sample surpassed the urban.

Some of the differences between the Experimental and Control groups on certain subtests might be explained by uncontrolled variables which have been identified:

1. The large urban Control school introduced reading in English in the first three grades (even in Grade 1).

2. The test indicated only whether the child could pronounce the words on a list, not whether the words were comprehended.

3. Certain Micronesian languages tend to have more of an "S" sound with the final consonants which may make it easier for children to learn the proper English forms or may be mistaken for giving the correct form.

4. In the rural testing situation there was greater opportunity for the teacher inadvertently to hear parts of the testing procedure, which might have caused more teaching emphasis on the items tested.

5. There was a town bias in the content of the sentences and the corresponding illustrations in some of the tests for Aural Comprehension and Discrimination, which might account for the greater gain in the urban samples on those tests.

6. There might have been a greater emphasis on reading in the larger urban schools, or more reading materials available.

7. The physical facilities in the rural schools made it difficult to conduct the types of oral group drills and other group activities needed to improve Oral Production.

8. In the urban Control sample the children seemed to be more involved in learning to read in English in Level I, and perhaps correspondingly less time was given to oral drills.

9. The wider age range and the larger number of overage children in the Experimental groups might have caused a slower rate of learning as well as a lower achievement level than in the Control groups.

10. The Control urban school had at Level II and III a group of children who have had the most continuous opportunity yet afforded Ponapean children to learn English from a native speaker since the beginning elementary grades. This might well affect rate of learning as well as level of achievement.

11. The fact that there were higher pre-test scores in many cases where the change was from higher to higher raises the question as to whether greater initial ability acted in a dynamic or nonlinear way, creating a differential rate of learning. Research on cognitive development suggests that this might be true.

12. The fact that other research has shown that rural children fell far behind in more abstract learnings while the urban children were more sophisticated linguistically and more abstract might help to explain the apparently more advantageous functioning of the Experimental curriculum in the urban population and the Control materials in the rural population in a number of the subtests, since the Tate material is highly simplified.

13. The teachers might have varied in their ability and their dedication to the designated curriculum.

14. Some potential test gains from pilot testing and/or from a previous curriculum may have been absorbed into the post-test scores.

15. The Oral Reading subtest, Level I-4, was a spurious criterion because both curriculums were committed to teaching only vernacular reading at that level.

16. Three of the subtests showed very low reliability coefficients.

17. The bilingual/multilingual factor was recognized but only partially controlled, and therefore affected the standardization of the testing procedures.

18. The findings of the curriculum research project were based upon a short term evaluation of the materials. Slightly more than six months elapsed between pre- and post-testing.

19. The Tate materials had already been field tested and revised, whereas the Curriculum Research materials were produced, classroom tested, revised, and evaluated within the short time of a year and a half.

20. A longer period of use and evaluation of the two sets of materials might well result in a different pattern of data.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The period of evaluation of both the experimental and control English materials was so short that the findings should be considered inconclusive. Further use and evaluation of both sets of materials over a period of five years is recommended.

It is suggested that the extended use and evaluation might be done under the auspices of the Trust Territory Education Department. Possibly this would contribute to a sense of identification with the study and to more effective use of the results.

The fact that significant gains were made under both the Experimental and Control curriculums should negate the fear that children in the schools would be cheated of learning by continuation of the use of both sets of materials.

The CRC Proficiency Tests offer material for further revision and standardization. It is recommended that steps be taken to continue work on revision and establishment of norms.

The development of strong teacher education programs in the Trust Territory is urgently needed if the educational deficits are to be overcome.

Intensive and continuous work on English language skills, including reading and writing which are particularly low, is imperative in order to provide the tools for learning. This applies to teachers and other adult students as well as high school students and elementary school children.

The development and selection of curriculum materials in all subject matter areas and the supplying of them to the schools and teachers are crucial needs. The teachers themselves should be involved in this effort.

A clear policy regarding the development of literacy in the native languages should be established, and the necessary steps taken to implement the policy.

Several leads for basic research which would contribute to knowledge in the field of second language learning have come out of this study:

1. The development and use of reading materials in the vernacular, with research on the long range effect of developing reading skills in English in place of vs. parallel with reading skills in the vernacular, in comparison with the current policy of teaching literacy in the vernacular before reading in English.

2. The structuring of various patterns for the use of the vernacular to contribute to learning, with research on the long range effect of the various patterns.

3. Longitudinal study of possible differential patterns of learning among rural and urban children, with resulting needs for differential curriculum.

4. Longitudinal study of possible differential rates of learning when differential levels of English achievement exist at school entrance, and the implications for educational planning.

5. Longitudinal study of possible different rates of learning when children enter school at markedly different ages, and the implications for different educational planning.

6. Longitudinal study of the effects on language and cognitive development and social attitudes of the patterns of child rearing typical of Micronesian cultures, and the implications for educational planning.

It might well be that research on some of these problems would have far reaching effects of great significance for the future development of the human resources of Micronesia. Field research at the university graduate or post-doctoral level would be extremely helpful both to the Trust Territory and to the university. Action research carried on within the Micronesian school system could be very useful. The Trust Territory needs the help of a strong research program to search for the answers to basic questions in order to formulate sound policy decisions and action programs.

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APPENDIX A

ADMINISTRATIVE DIRECTIVE NO. 67-4

TRUST TERRITORY OF THE PACIFIC ISLANDS
Office of the High Commissioner
Saipan, Mariana Islands 96950
June 20, 1967

To:	All District Administrators All Educational Administrators All Trust Territory Teachers
Subject:	Teaching-English-As-A-Second Language (TESL) Program Policies for the Schools of the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands
Rescission:	Any prior statements made relative to teaching English as a second language, using English as the language of instruction, or the development of literacy in the indigenous languages, which are in conflict with the following policy statement are hereby cancelled.

BASIC OBJECTIVE

English shall become the general language for communication and instruction in the Trust Territory.

BASIC PRINCIPLES

1. Elementary school children, starting in grade one, shall be taught to read in their local language.

2. English shall be taught as a second language. The Teaching-English-as-a-Second Language (TESL) Program includes two major areas:

   a. Oral English, and
   b. Literacy in English

3. English shall become the medium of instruction in the schools as soon as the students indicate sufficient evidence of their ability to comprehend other subjects in English.

TESL IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

1. Oral English

   a. A minimum of one hour per day of instruction in oral English shall be provided each student.

   b. At least one year of oral English shall precede any attempt to teach literacy in English.

2. Grouping

   a. Elementary school students shall be grouped in accordance with their English language development for purposes of TESL instruction.

   b. The size of each TESL class shall be restricted to a maximum of twenty-five (25) students.

3. TESL MATERIAL

   a. The syllabus shown as the "Index" on the last four pages of each book of ORAL ENGLISH by G. M. Tate shall establish the progression which shall be followed in elementary schools, beginning in the first grade. Changes shall be made as required by the teacher to suit American phonology and language.

   b. The Tate Course (eleven books) shall be followed as outlined in the course. Any additional time in the daily schedule provided for oral English shall be used for English-teaching activities consistent with the syllabus.

   c. When reading in English is introduced, the Miami Linguistic Readers and associated materials (charts, flash cards, etc.) shall be used as described in the accompanying manuals.

   d. Books 1-5 of the Miami Linguistic Readers shall be completed before the use of the South Pacific Commission (SPC) Junior Series Book 1.

   e. Thereafter, the South Pacific Commission Readers shall be used as the basal reading series, and the Miami Linguistic Readers after Book 5 shall be used as supplementary reading material.

   f. When supplementary reading materials are recommended for selection, they shall be materials suitable for students of English as a second language. All TESL and TESL-related materials selected for purchase shall be approved by the Director of Education.

   g. When English is used for instruction in other subject matter areas, it shall be incumbent upon teachers to insure that both the English language patterns and the reading levels of instructional materials are consonant with each student's English language capabilities.

4. Implementation

   a. With the approval of the Educational Administrator, the District English Language Specialist shall select a TESL coordinator in each school in his district who shall be directly responsible for the implementation of the TESL Program in that school. Assignment and re-assignment of TESL teachers shall be determined by the Educational Administrator, and maximum consideration shall be given to the recommendations of the District English Language Specialist.

b. Students in the first grade shall begin the oral syllabus in September. Students in grades two through eight shall be brought to the appropriate place in the syllabus consonant with their attainment as soon as possible.

c. This TESL Program as outlined shall be continued for a minimum period of five years (1967-68 through 1971-72).

d. A basic minimum measurement program to evaluate the English language program (TESL) on a territorial basis shall be administered and co-ordinated by the Headquarters English Program Supervisor with the aid and assistance of the District English Language Specialists.

TESL IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS (HIGH SCHOOL)

1. Oral English

a. A minimum of one hour per day of instruction in oral English shall be provided each student.

2. Grouping

a. High school students shall be grouped in accordance with their English language development for purposes of TESL instruction (i.e. basic, intermediate, advanced).

b. Each TESL group shall be limited to a maximum class size of:

(1) Basic - 15 students
(2) Intermediate - 20 students
(3) Advanced - 25 students

3. TESL Materials

a. One of the following TESL series shall be used as the basic TESL course for the high school:

(1) Fries, American English Series
(2) English Language Services, Inc., English This Way
(3) English Language Services, Inc., Intensive Course in English

b. One of the following texts shall be used for supplementary drill material:

(1) Leonard Newmark, Using American English

(2) R. Lado and C. Fries, *English Sentence Patterns*
(3) R. Lado and C. Fries, *English Pattern Practice*

c. When supplementary reading materials are recommended for selection, they shall be materials which are equivalent to the language patterns used in the TESL Program.

d. When English is used for instruction in other subject matter areas, it shall be encumbent upon teachers to insure that both the English language patterns and the reading levels of instructional materials are consonant with each student's English language capabilities.

4. Implementation

a. There shall be TESL teachers on the high school staff to implement the program. One of these teachers shall be appointed as the coordinator of the TESL Program by the District English Language Specialist with the approval of the Educational Administrator and the high school principal.

b. Prior to each school year, a committee of English language teachers, under the direction of the District English Language Specialist, shall draw up a high school English language programs which conforms to TESL principles, giving due consideration to materials and teacher competencies locally available. This program shall be reviewed by the District English Language Specialist and the high school principal, and approved by the Director of Education.

c. A basic minimum measurement program to evaluate the English language program (TESL) in the high schools on a territorial basis shall be administered and coordinated by the Headquarters English Program Supervisor with the aid and assistance of the District English Language Specialists and the high school principals.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SURVEY OF TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE COMMUNICATION SKILLS OF LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING, AND WRITING

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE TEACHER

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out (1) what instructional materials for Ponapean/English language teaching are being used in the schools; (2) to what extent a planned sequence is being followed or whether there is no planned sequence; and (3) the methods of teaching most commonly used.

There is no "right" answer to any of the questions.

Section I

If you do not work with Ponapean, check the fact that you do not and omit that section of that section of the questionnaire. If you do not work with English teaching, omit that section.

If types of instructional materials are listed which you do not use, check "None" and go on to the next item.

If you use certain types of teaching materials to teach more than one kind of language communication skill, check the column for every skill in which you use it.

APPENDIX B

CURRICULUM RESEARCH CONTRACT 6-1025

Survey of Teaching English Language Communication Skills
of
Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing
in
Grades 1-12, Ponape District

Name:____________________________ Sex:_____ School:________________________
Last First Middle

Position:______________________ Teaching Levels and Subjects:______________________

Grouping: High ________ Low ________ Average __________ Heterogeneous _________

I. List the instructional materials used in your class to teach the skills below. List names of teachers' guides, texts, workbooks, drill cards, charts, films, filmstrips, and other teaching aids. Give the level, if the book is one of a series. If no instructional materials of a particular kind are available for your class, check "None" under that heading. If you use a variety of objects, activities, and teacher-made materials, state this fact and tell the nature of the materials and activities.

Check one: I do ________ do not _________ teach Ponapean.

PONAPEAN

A. Textbooks*

				(Check)	(Used in teaching - Check:)			
Subject	Textbook Title	Author or Publisher	Copyright Date	None	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing

APPENDIX B

Check one: I do ____ do not ____ teach English.
Grouping: High ____ Low ____ Average ____ Heterogeneous ____
Grade Levels: ____ ____ ____ ____

	(Check)	(Used in teaching - Check:)			
	None	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
ENGLISH A. Textbooks* Subject — Textbook Title — Author or Publisher — Copyright Date					
B. Workbooks*					
PONAPEAN B. Workbooks* Subject — Textbook Title — Author or Publisher — Copyright Date					
C. Teacher's Guide*					
D. Charts* Subject — Title — Author or Publisher — Copyright Date					

APPENDIX B

PONAPEAN	(Check) None	(Used in teaching - Check:) Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
E. Drill Cards*					
F. Films*					
G. Filmstrips* Subject Title Author or Publisher Copyright Date					
H. Pictures*					
I. Real Objects (List them)*					
J. Teacher-made Aids (List them.)*					
K. Pupil-made Aids (List them.)*					

L. Pupil Activities (List them.)*

APPENDIX B

	(Check)	(Used in teaching - Check:)			
	None	**Listening**	**Speaking**	**Reading**	**Writing**
PONAPEAN M. Other Teaching Materials (List them.)*					
ENGLISH C. Teacher's Guide* **Subject** **Title** **Author or Publisher** **Copyright Date**					
D. Charts*					
E. Drill Cards*					
F. Films*					
G. Filmstrips* **Subject** **Title** **Author or Publisher** **Copyright Date**					

H. Pictures*

APPENDIX B

ENGLISH	(Check)	(Used in teaching - Check:)			
	None	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
I. Real Objects (List them.)*					
J. Teacher-made Aids (List them.)*					
K. Pupil-made Aids (List them.)*					
L. Pupil Activities (List them.)*					
M. Other Teaching Materials (List them.)*					

*Space allowed for responses has been reduced. Original questionnaire provided ample space under each section.

II. Show the curriculum sequence which you use by numbering the skills below in the approximate order taught. If certain skills parallel each other in time, give them the same number. Number 1 the skill you teach first, Number 2 the skill you teach second. If they occur at the same time, number both 1.

_____ Reading skills in English

_____ Speaking skills in English

_____ Listening skills in Ponapean

_____ Reading skills in Ponapean

_____ Writing skills in English

_____ Writing skills in Ponapean

_____ Speaking skills in Ponapean

_____ Listening skills in English

III. Please check whether you follow a particular order of teaching pre-planned word and sentence forms. If you work on forms and patterns used in class work at the time the need arises, please check the statement which applies. If more than one statement applies, check more than one.

_______ We are given a list of English word and sentence forms but we decide the order of teaching them.

_______ We are given a list of English word and sentence forms and the order in which to teach them.

_______ I select and make up a list of word and sentence forms in pre-planning for my teaching.

_______ I do not have a list of pre-planned English word and sentence forms which I teach.

_______ I do not follow a particular order in teaching language skills.

_______ I work on English language word and sentence forms and contrast in patterns used in class work at the time the need arises.

_______ I follow a general order but I use it in relation to the English language word and sentence forms and contrast in patterns needed in class work at the time.

_______ Any other (Please state.)

IV. Rate the techniques below for teaching English according to the importance which you attach to them in your teaching. Check in the appropriate column for each technique listed. Check only one column for each technique.

Check one: I do _____ do not _____ teach English.
Grouping : High _____ Low _____ Average _____ Heterogeneous _____
Grade Levels: _____ _____ _____ _____

APPENDIX B

(Check grade)

1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-12		Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
					A. Listening Comprehension							
					1. Giving simple oral commands in English which children carry out.							
					2. Using simple pictures and real objects to teach the names of things.							
					3. Giving oral directions in English for seatwork.							
					4. Telling Ponapean legends in English as the source of listening and language practice.							
					5. Reading simple picture story books in English.							
					6. Telling simple stories in English with the help of a flannel board.							
					7. Using gestures, motions and simple pictures to teach the words for various actions.							
					8. Playing games that require listening to and understanding simple English words and sentences.							
					9. Telling stories of interesting but simple events that happened to the teacher, using real objects.							

10. Having children tell about things that happened to them using real objects.

B. Speaking

1. Presentation of a speech pattern by the teacher followed by intensive, repeated drill.

2. Use of choral pattern practice before dialogue practice and individual response.

3. Relating speech patterns to real situations, real objects, and activities.

4. Beginning with individual speech response and building up to choral drill.

5. Relating the speech patterns to songs, folk dances, and other parts of the culture.

6. Using such activities as puppet plays, dramatizations, and art activities as the center for speech practice.

7. Breaking long sentences into shorter thought groups for easier repetition and memorization.

8. Having a "show and tell" period in which pupils discuss objects or stories they bring to share.

9. Giving daily pronunciation drills with minimal pairs (words or sentences with only one sound difference).

10. Giving drills on isolated words for accurate production of sounds.

APPENDIX B

(Check grade)

1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-12		Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
					11. Giving a description of how a certain sound is produced.							
					12. Translating each line of a dialogue into Ponapean to make sure that children understand.							
					13. Presenting the situation for a dialogue through appropriate actions, pictures, or translation.							
					C. Reading							
					1. Telling or reading many stories to the pupils.							
					2. Having the pupils discuss the stories and answer questions.							
					3. Having pupils learn reading by repeating sentences after the teacher reads to them.							
					4. Having pupils identify important phrases within a sentence to help them learn to read.							
					5. Having pupils match word cards with words in an experience chart to help them learn to read.							

6. Having teachers guide pupils in making experience stories about their activities, then learning to read them.

7. Helping pupils use their knowledge of word structure in learning to read.

8. Helping children learn to read by copying a sentence over and over.

9. Sometimes helping children learn to read by copying a sentence over and over.

10. Often helping children learn to read by copying a sentence over and over.

11. Presenting and explaining the new vocabulary in each subject as it is needed.

12. Presenting all the new vocabulary in each subject matter unit at the beginning of the unit.

13. Having pupils read individual words before reading whole sentences.

14. Having pupils learn all the letter of the alphabet before putting them together in words.

15. Drawing conclusions or raising questions on the basis of information read.

16. Having pupils look for specific information as they read.

17. Stopping before a story is finished and having pupils infer how it might end.

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(Check grade)												
1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-12		Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
					18. Having pupils compare and evaluate sources of information.							
					19. Having the teacher prepare reading charts to present information related to other subjects.							
					20. Having the students and teacher together summarize information in the form of a chart.							
					21. Sometimes having pupils draw illustrations for charts.							
					22. Often having pupils draw illustrations for charts.							
					23. Putting class rules on charts and using them for evaluation of behavior and for reading practice.							
					24. Having pupils make lists of words that rhyme.							
					25. Having pupils make list of words that begin alike.							
					26. Having pupils change words by adding prefixes and suffixes.							
					27. Having pupils use the context to figure out a word and to gain meaning.							

28. Having pupils sound words letter by letter.

D. Writing

1. Helping children learn to write by practicing a single letter many, many times.

2. Helping children learn to write by putting letters they know into words, then sentences.

3. Teaching children manuscript writing in the primary grades.

4. Helping children learn cursive writing before their writing habits become automatic in manuscript.

5. Changing from manuscript to cursive about Grade ______. (State grade.)

6. Waiting until seventh or eighth grade to change to cursive writing.

7. Having pupils memorize a rule in grammar first and then giving them practice in using the rule.

8. Having children arrive at a rule in grammar by generalizing on many examples.

9. Having children write a simple class newspaper as a group project.

10. Helping children learn to communicate ideas in written form by having individuals write words or sentences about a picture they drew, an experiment they performed, a story they read, or some other activity.

APPENDIX B

(Check grade)													
1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-12			Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
					11.	Having children memorize spelling rules to help them learn to spell.							
					12.	Helping children learn to spell by writing a word many times.							
					13.	Having children arrive at a spelling rule by generalizing on many examples.							
					14.	Teaching spelling words in lists.							
					15.	Having spelling words used in writing simple sentences and brief stories.							
					16.	Having individuals keep their own spelling dictionaries of words which they need to learn.							
					17.	Helping children learn to spell by learning which letters or letter combinations stand for certain sounds.							
					18.	Helping children use their knowledge of prefixes, suffixes, and syllables in learning to spell.							
					19.	Keeping a class spelling dictionary which the pupils illustrate.							

20. Keeping lists of new vocabulary with word meanings for each subject.

21. Learning to spell commonly used words in each subject.

22. Teaching the correct writing (formation) of letters of the alphabet.

E. General Methods

1. Developing skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in Ponapean before presenting them in English.

2. Focusing sharply on word and sentence forms in the English language for drill.

3. Focusing sharply on contrast in patterns between Ponapean and English.

4. Developing skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English before developing them in Ponapean.

5. Developing skills in English and doing no work in Ponapean except when needed for understanding.

6. Demanding absolute mastery of each step before presenting the next step.

7. Moving to the next step after reasonable mastery is achieved, but continuing to review with small variations.

8. Using varied kinds of drills.

9. Using audio-visual aids in drills.

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(Check grade)												
1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-12		Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
					10. Presenting all explanations strictly in English with no translation of corresponding English and Ponapean sentences.							
					11. Presenting for reading and writing only the words and sentences already in the pupil's speaking vocabulary.							
					12. Introducing new words and sentences through a reading and writing approach first.							

APPENDIX B

TABLE 24

TEACHING LISTENING SKILLS

TEACHING LISTENING SKILLS__ TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
1. Giving simple oral commands in English which children carry out.	25	9	3	1			
2. Using simple pictures and real objects to teach the names of things.	20	7	9	1		1	
3. Giving oral directions in English for seatwork.	18	3	6				
4. Telling Ponapean legends in English as the source of listening and language practice.	5	12	7	6		6	
5. Reading simple picture story books in English.	9	13	10	1	1	1	
6. Telling simple stories in English with the help of a flannel board.	10	5	4	4	1	7	
7. Using gestures, motions and simple pictures to teach the words for various actions.	21	7	4	1			
8. Playing games that require listening to and understanding simple English words and sentences.	9	11	8	5	2		
9. Telling stories of interesting but simple events that happened to the teacher, using real objects.	4	11	9	6	1	2	
10. Having children tell about things that happened to them, using real objects.	11	12	4	4		4	

APPENDIX B

TABLE 25

TEACHING SPEECH SKILLS

TEACHING SPEECH SKILLS__ TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
1. Presentation of a speech pattern by the teacher followed by intensive, repeated drill.	16	6	8	2		2	1
2. Use of choral pattern practice before dialogue practice and individual response.	16	8	7	1		3	1
3. Relating speech patterns to real situations, real objects, and activities.	18	6	5	1		4	
4. Beginning with individual speech response and building up to choral drill.	6	4	7	6		10	
5. Relating the speech patterns to songs, folk dances, and other parts of the culture.	2	9	4	7	2	4	3
6. Using such activities as puppet plays, dramatizations, and art activities as the center for speech practice.	6	9	12	3		4	
7. Breaking long sentences into shorter thought groups for easier repetition and memorization.	16	6	4	4		2	
8. Having a "show and tell" period in which pupils discuss objects or stories they bring to share.	7	8	6	3		8	2

(Continued on next page.)

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TABLE 25 (Cont.)

TEACHING SPEECH SKILLS__ TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
9. Giving daily pronunciation drills with minimal pairs (words or sentences with only one sound difference).	13	9	9	4		1	
10. Giving drills on isolated words for accurate production of sounds.	6	9	8	3	3	2	
11. Giving a description of how a certain sound is produced.	12	10	7	5		1	
12. Sometimes translating each line of a dialogue into Ponapean to make sure that children understand.	9	6	9	4			8
13. Presenting the situation for a dialogue through appropriate actions, pictures, or translation.	13	10	4	3	1	1	
14. Putting short thought groups into sentences for easier repetition and memorization.	8	7	9	1	1	2	1
15. Often translating each line of a dialogue into Ponapean to make sure that children understand.	10	5	2	3		9	1

APPENDIX B

TABLE 26

TEACHING READING SKILLS

TEACHING READING SKILLS__ TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
1. Telling or reading many stories to the pupils.	16	7	9	1	1	3	
2. Having the pupils discuss the stories and answer questions.	14	12	6	2		3	1
3. Having pupils learn reading by repeating sentences after the teacher reads to them.	10	8	6	6	3	2	1
4. Having pupils identify important phrases within a sentence to help them learn to read.	9	9	4	5	1	3	3
5. Having pupils match word cards with words in an experience chart to help them learn to read.	7	6	4	4	2	8	2
6. Having teachers guide pupils in making experience stories about their activities, then learning to read them.	6	9	6	5	2	3	2
7. Helping pupils use their knowledge of word structure in learning to read.	17	7	8	1		2	1
8. Sometimes helping children learn to read by copying a sentence over and over.	5	2	6	4	5	7	2
9. Often helping children learn to read by copying a sentence over and over.	5	3	4	5	4	7	2

(Continued on next page)

APPENDIX B

TABLE 26 (Cont.)

	TEACHING READING SKILLS TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
10.	Presenting and explaining the new vocabulary in each subject as it is needed.	19	12	3	4			
11.	Presenting all the new vocabulary in each subject matter unit at the beginning of the unit.	11	10	3	5		4	
12.	Having pupils read individual words before reading whole sentence.	7	5	6	2	4	4	1
13.	Having pupils learn all the letters of the alphabet before putting them together in words.	4	5	4	3	2	8	3
14.	Drawing conclusions or raising questions on the basis of information read.	11	9	4	2		3	2
15.	Having pupils look for specific information as they read.	12	8	6	2		2	
16.	Stopping before a story is finished and having pupils infer how it might end.	3	6	6	3		5	2
17.	Having pupils compare and evaluate sources of information.	9	7	4	1	1	6	1
18.	Having the teacher prepare reading charts to present information related to other subjects.	9	7	5	2		4	2
19.	Having the students and teacher together summarize information in the form of a chart.	3	5	11	3	2	8	

(Continued on next page)

APPENDIX B

TABLE 26 (Cont.)

TEACHING READING SKILLS__ TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
20. Sometimes having pupils draw illustrations for charts.	5	2	13	2	1	9	
21. Often having pupils draw illustrations for charts.	4	5	6	6	3	7	1
22. Putting class rules on charts and using them for evaluation of behavior and for reading practice.	2	5	8	4		5	1
23. Having pupils make lists of words that rhyme.	6	8	10	5		3	2
24. Having pupils make list of words that begin alike.	7	8	8	6		4	1
25. Having pupils change words by adding prefixes and suffixes.	6	10	6	4		5	2
26. Having pupils use the context to figure out a word and to gain meaning.	13	9	5	3		1	
27. Having pupils sound words letter by letter.	3	10	6	4	2	6	2

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TABLE 27

TEACHING WRITING SKILLS

	TEACHING WRITING SKILLS__ TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
1.	Helping children learn to write by practicing a single letter many, many times.	10	9	4	6	1	3	1
2.	Helping children learn to write by putting letters they know into words, then sentences.	4	13	4	3	4	2	1
3.	Teaching children manuscript writing in the primary grades.	8	4	7	3		5	1
4.	Helping children learn cursive writing before their writing habits become automatic in manuscript.	7	6	6	6		5	4
5.	Changing from manuscript to cursive about Grade 3-4. (State grade.) /Stated most often./	6	3	2	1		2	5
6.	Waiting until seventh or eighth grade to change to cursive writing.	1	1	2		8	12	6
7.	Having pupils memorize a rule in grammar first and then giving them practice in using the rule.	6	3	6	4	5	14	
8.	Having children arrive at a rule in grammar by generalizing on many examples.	8	10	3	3	4	5	

(Continued on next page.)

APPENDIX B

TABLE 27 (Cont.)

	TEACHING WRITING SKILLS— TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
9.	Having children write a simple class newspaper as a group project.	5	5	7	3		8	2
10.	Helping children learn to communicate ideas in written form by having individuals write words or sentences about a picture they drew, an experiment they performed, a story they read, or some other activity.	12	12	6	1		5	
11.	Having children memorize spelling rules to help them learn to spell.	7	6	8	7		6	1
12.	Helping children learn to spell by writing a word many times.	13	3	8	7	3	1	11
13.	Having children arrive at a spelling rule by generalizing on many examples.	11	8	4	3		4	1
14.	Teaching spelling words in lists.	8	9	12	3	1	1	
15.	Having spelling words used in writing simple sentences and brief stories.	10	15	4	1	1	2	
16.	Having individuals keep their own spelling dictionaries of words which they need to learn.	13	7	3	3	3	2	1
17.	Helping children learn to spell by learning which letters or letter combinations stand for certain sounds.	12	10	5	3	1	2	1
18.	Helping children use their knowledge of prefixes, suffixes, and syllables in learning to spell.	12	10	2	3	1	3	1

(Continued on next page.)

APPENDIX B

TABLE 27 (Cont.)

	TEACHING WRITING SKILLS__ TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
19.	Keeping a class spelling dictionary which the pupils illustrate.	2	11	7	3	2	4	
20.	Keeping lists of new vocabulary with word meanings for each subject.	14	5	3	3	1	2	2
21.	Learning to spell commonly used words in each subject.	6	11	9	1		2	
22.	Teaching the correct writing (formation) of letters of the alphabet.	11	8	7	3	1	1	

APPENDIX B

TABLE 28

GENERAL METHODS

	GENERAL METHODS TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
1.	Developing skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in Ponapean before presenting them in English.	13	1	5	2		6	1
2.	Focusing sharply on word and sentence forms in the English language for drill.	8	14	6				3
3.	Focusing sharply on contrast in patterns between Ponapean and English.	4	9	4	6		4	1
4.	Developing skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in English before developing them in Ponapean.	8	5	3	2	2	7	3
5.	Developing skills in English and doing no work in Ponapean except when needed for understanding.	13	9	2	2	2	4	1
6.	Demanding absolute mastery of each step before presenting the next step.	16	6	5	5	1	5	
7.	Moving to the next step after reasonable mastery is achieved, but continuing to review with small variations.	16	14	4				
8.	Using varied kinds of drills.	15	15	4	1			
9.	Using audio-visual aids in drills.	8	14	5	2		2	
10.	Presenting all explanations strictly in English with no translation of	7	7	5	10	1	4	

(Continued on next page.)

APPENDIX B

TABLE 28 (Cont.)

	GENERAL METHODS__ TECHNIQUES RATED BY TEACHERS	Highly important	Quite important	Average importance	Little importance	No importance	Never	Don't know
	corresponding English and Ponapean sentences.							
11.	Presenting for reading and writing only the words and sentences already in the pupil's speaking vocabulary.	12	10	6	8		1	
12.	Introducing new words and sentences through a reading and writing approach first.	13	6	3	5		7	

APPENDIX C

ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS AMONG MICRONESIAN TEACHERS

Using a detailed analysis of the taped speech for twenty-five Micronesian teachers attending the CRC Summer Session (see attached forms), the following difficulties were found to be recurrent and even predictable in the English speech of these relatively well-educated Micronesians:

/p-b/	/p/ changes to /b/ initially and medially. /b/ becomes /p/ in a final position.
/t-d/	/t/ changes to /d/ initially and medially. In the initial position, where there is a consonant blend, /d/ becomes /t/. In the final position, where there is a consonant blend, /d/ is omitted.
/k-g/	/k/ and /g/ are generally interchanged. In consonant blends, /g/ becomes /k/ in the medial position; /k/ becomes /g/ in the final position.
/f-v/	/f/ changes to /v/ in the medial position. /v/ changes to /f/ in the initial and final positions.
/θ-ð-d/	/θ/ changes to /ð/ in initial and medial positions. /ð/ changes to /d/ in the initial and medial positions, to /θ/ in the final position.
/š-s-z/	/š/ changes to /s/ in the medial position. /z/ changes to /s/ generally. /z/ is often omitted in final consonant blends.
/h-∅/	/h/ is dropped in words where this phoneme occurs initially. Conversely, the /h/ is added, initially, to any word beginning with a stressed vowel sound.
/dz-ž-ǰ/	The /z/ in the /dz/ blend is usually omitted. A medial /ž/ changes to /š/ or /s/ or /ǰ/. The initial /j/ becomes /č/ or /š/, medial and lateral /ǰ/ becomes /č/.
/šən-čən-žən-jən/	The latter three of these sounds become /šən/.
/iy-i/	These two sounds are interchanged in the medial position.
/ey-e/	/ey/ usually changes to /e/.
/æ-a-ə/	Medial /a/ becomes /ow/ and medial /ə/ becomes /a/ or /æ/.
/uw-u/	Medial /u/ becomes /uw/.

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/č-j-š/ Initial and medial /č/ becomes /ǰ/; final /č/ becomes /š/.

DIAGNOSTIC SENTENCES (for adults)

a. Please say your full name before starting to read.
b. Then read each sentence twice, at your normal, conversational speed.

1. Did you happen to see a map on the porch under this spoon?
2. You'd better grab that breadfruit before the carabao steps on it.

3. Don't try to take a potato plant on the M-Boat.
4. Drop your paddle down onto the ground, would you?

5. Come to the second annual school picnic and work with me.
6. Did you give your grandfather a frog from the lagoon?

7. I'm afraid this beautiful flower will fall off the elephant.
8. He never cooks vegetables on a stove.

9. Don't forget to be careful of the knife.
10. Some people put pepper on the top of an apple.

11. I voted to move several guava trees next November.
12. You'd better give that brown rabbit a back rub.

13. I want to thank you both for my birthday present.
14. Those brothers bathe in the river together.

15. Should the ocean have fresh fish?
16. I took some medicine in a small glass, once.

17. Let's try to put our parents into this sentence.
18. Last March, we changed the picture.

19. Hello! How hungry are you?
20. Anyone who enjoys apples and eggplants should come inside.

21. That little atoll looks like a bottle.
22. After the doctor left that letter, my sister felt better.

23. On the third Thursday of next month, something has to be done.
24. This cemetery is for roosters that don't like rice or ice cream.
25. It's fun to feed you a loaf of soft coffee bread.

26. This weather makes the water smooth.
27. Please excuse me for wearing zoris.
28. Several vegetables in this village have twelve leaves.

APPENDIX C

29. Last Wednesday, my friends found several toads on the road.
30. Micronesia provides much leisure for Micronesians.
31. At just what age can a person enjoy oranges and juice in January?

32. A large bug was crawling along that old clock on the wall.

33. The hungry carpenter at the door is really my brother.

34. Our organization is working on the relationships in translation.
35. The school kitchen is giving a luncheon at noon.
36. The Micronesian man suffered an abrasion.
37. This region on your map needs a wider margin.

38. Fifteen people can sleep on leaves for a week.
39. Sticking a cigarette into the middle of that spear was a trick.

40. I ache from playing baseball for eight days of my vacation.
41. When they're ready for the question, remember to tell me.

42. That family hasn't had any chance to laugh at Santa Claus.
43. Sorry, but the bottom of that bottle won't fit into my pocket.
44. Sometimes, sunshine discolors just dozens of umbrellas.

45. Whose beautiful, smooth balloon went through the window at school?
46. The woman should pull a book out and look at it.

APPENDIX C

CHECK SHEET for DIAGNOSTIC SENTENCES

Note: Mark confusion-area only. Transcribe mistake phonemically.

	Initial	Medial	Final
1. /p/			
2. /b/			
3. /t/			
4. /d/			
5. /k/			
6. /g/			
7. /f/			
8. /v/			
9. /f/			
10. /p/			
11. /v/			
12. /b/			
13. /θ/			
14. /ð/			
15. /š/			
16. /s/			
17. /ts/			
18. /č/			
19. /h/			
20. /Ø/			
21. /-tl/			
22. /-tr/			

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	Initial	Medial	Final
23. /θ/			
24. /s/			
25. /f/			
26. /ð/			
27. /z/			
28. /v/			
29. /dz/			
30. /ż/			
31. /ǰ/			
32. /l/			
33. /r/			
34. /ṡən/			
35. /ċən/			
36. /żən/			
37. /ǰən/			
38. /iy/			
39. /i/			
40. /ay/			
41. /e/			
42. /æ/			
43. /a/			
44. /ə/			
45. /uw/			
46. /u/			

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE TO PARENTS ON SOCIOECONOMIC FACTORS

CURRICULUM RESEARCH PROJECT CONTRACT #6-1025
University of Hawaii--U.S. Office of Education
Ponape, Eastern Caroline Islands, 96941
February, 1968

Kaselehlia Maing, Nohno oh Pahpa en ______________________________

Mwein komwa ese me noumwa seri me iangala irail me pilipildahr pwehn ale skeng ni lokaia en wai (English). Kahrepen skeng pwukat pwehn ese ma padahk me kaunopadahng seri kan ma konehng de soh. Irail me aleier skeng ni sounpwong October oh November pahn pwurehng iang skeng nan sounpwong April de May en sounpar wet.

Nan wehi teikan ni ansoun aramas kilikilang duwen pweida en padahk irail men ese duwen doadoahk en irail me apwapwali seri kan me iangala skeng. Eri kahrepwen kisin likou wet pwehn peki amwa sawas pwehki se men ese mwahu duwen doadoahk en pahpa de nohno de i me apwapwali seri kan. Menlau komwa pahn sapeng peidek kan oh seri pahn kapwureieng a sounpadahk doaropwe wet.

Ni omw pahn sapeng peidek kan duwen doadoahk en pahpa en seri ke pahn kilelehdi duwen i me nainki seri oh (kaiden i me waidahr seri ma e sote nainki ansouwet). Ma pahpa sote mie en kilelehdi doadoahk en nohno ma e doadoahk likin peneinei. Menlau, ma ke sote kak sapeng peidek kan ke pahn pil kaireki seri en kapwureieng doaropwe wet. I koapwoaroapwoarki me at doadoahk pan sawese padahk en lokaia en wai.

Kalangan en Kuma,

Ngai, Mrs. Terpstra

- -

(Child's Name)
Eden Seri Oh ______________________ School ______________

(Age) Sounpar depe, seri oh? __________ (Grade) Puin __________
(Language Spoken at Home)
Mehnia lokaia komwail kin doadoahngki nan amwail peneinei? __________
(Name of Father) (Mother's Name)
Eden Pahpa ____________________ Eden Nohno ____________________
(Father's years in school)
Sounpar depe me pahpa iangki skul? __________
(Mother's years in school)
Sounpar depe me nohno iangki skul __________
(Does father work for the Office) (If yes, where?)
Pahpa kin doadoahk ong Ohpis? ehi de soh _____ Ma ehi, iawasa? ________

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(What kind of work does he do?)
Doadoahk da, e kin wia? ______________________________
(Does father work other than for the Government?)
Iawasa pahpa kin doadoahk ma sote ong Ohpis? ______________________________
(What kind of work does he do?)
Mehnia songen doadoahk en kin wie? ______________________________
(Does father have his own business?)
Mie pein ah doadoahk, store, ape? ______________________________
(If yes, what kind of business?)
Ma ehi, mehnia songen doadoahk? ______________________________
(Does mother work outside the family?)
Iaduwen nohno, e kin doadoahk likin peneinei? ______________________________
(If yes, what kind of work?)
Ma ehi, mehnia songen doadoahk? ______________________________
(Does mother have her own business?)
Nohno mie pein ah doadoahk? ______________ Ma ehi, mehnia songen doadoahk? ______________________________
(List other work father or mother does for money.)
Menlau en kilelehdi songen doadoahk teikan me pahpa de nohno kin wie pwehn ale mwonhi dwuehte laid, wie pwoht, kauwada ihmw, peipei, teitei, ape.

Pahpa	Nohno

APPENDIX E

SUMMARY OF READING SEMINAR

The Reading Seminar was held at Kolonia Elementary School throughout the 1967-68 school year, meeting in alternate weeks.

The aims of the Reading Seminar were:

1. To understand the reading process and the importance of reading in the curriculum.
2. To learn to conduct varied kinds of beginning reading lessons.
3. To understand the use of evaluation in teaching reading.
4. To learn to use methods of developing reading comprehension skills in both English and Ponapean reading.
5. To learn to teach various word-attack skills.
6. To learn to plan and conduct an effective reading lesson.
7. To learn to organize and conduct a reading period with more than one reading group.
8. To learn special study skills needed in a Social Studies lesson.

The content of the Reading Seminar included:

1. Lectures and discussion on the nature of the reading process and its importance in the curriculum.
2. Ways of showing the children that what is said can be written and what is written can be read.
3. The preparation and use of various kinds of experience charts for different purposes.
4. Demonstration of beginning reading lessons in both Ponapean and English.
5. The use of evaluation - the need for knowing where the students are and the best ways to find out this information.
6. Demonstration of various methods of developing reading comprehension skills, followed by having the teachers develop reading comprehension exercises.
7. Demonstration of various techniques of teaching word-attack skills.

8. Demonstration of techniques of teaching handwriting.

9. Demonstration of lessons (a) with Ponapean readers and (b) with English readers.

10. Demonstration of group work in reading.

11. Demonstration of teaching study skills in content areas.

Procedures included the preparation and demonstration of lessons by the teachers in the elementary school, followed by critique sessions, as well as demonstrations and critiques of lessons demonstrated by seminar staff members. Teachers were required to prepare lesson plans and teaching materials. Staff members observed their teaching in their classes and gave supervisory help.

APPENDIX F

SUMMARY OF TESL SEMINARS

The first TESL Seminar sponsored by the Curriculum Research Project was held in the summer of 1967. This seminar included all teachers from Kolonia, Pehleng and Sekere Elementary Schools where the Curriculum Research Contract's experimental materials in English were to be used. During the 1967-68 and 1968-69 school years the seminar was continued as a part of the MTEC Curriculum and interested Kolonia schools teachers were also invited to attend the seminar.

The aims of the TESL Seminars were:

1. To understand the very nature of language.
2. To understand how native and second languages are learned.
3. To be able to prepare a good English lesson.
4. To learn and practice the skills necessary for good language teaching.

The Seminar had three general parts:

(1) Lectures, readings, discussions.

(2) Observation and teaching of English.

(3) Speech improvement.

The content of the course was taught through lectures, readings, and discussions. The major text used for this part of the course was Dacanay's Procedures and Techniques in Learning English as a Second Language. Content covered in the seminar:

1. The nature of language.
2. The purpose of TESL.
3. Ways to present English structure.
4. Various types of pattern drills.
5. Various types of pronunciation drills.
6. Activities for developing reading readiness and beginning reading.
7. Activities in teaching writing and spelling.
8. Testing of English structure (oral and written English and

listening comprehension).

Students were required to write sample lessons for each of the content areas (3-8) covered.

All of the students in seminar were required to observe TESL classes. Some observations were done as a group after which there was a discussion of the lesson. Other observations were done individually.

Following a period of observation, seminarians were asked to teach some English classes. These usually included pre-planning and post-conference with the instructor.

Throughout the seminars there has been felt need for speech improvement among the seminarians. To be good English teachers they need to polish up their own English. For this part of the seminars, the major texts used were Prator's *Manual for Pronunciation of American English*, and Stevick's *Workbook in Language Teaching*.

Text used was:

Dacanay, F. R., *Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching*, J. Donald Bowen (Ed.), Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.: Oceania Publications, Inc., 1963.

References used for the seminar were:

Billows, R. L., *The Techniques of Language Teaching*, *London*: Longmans, Green & Co. Ltd., 1961.

Bloomfield, and C. L. Barnhart, *Let's Read*, Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1961.

Gleason, H. A., Jr., *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics*. New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston, 1955.

Lado, R., *Language Testing*, New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1961.

Lado, R., *Linguistics Across Cultures*, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1957.

Stevick, E., *A Workbook in Language Teaching*, New York: Abington Press, 1963.

Stevick, E., *Helping People Learn English*, New York: Abington Press, 1957.

Prator, H., Jr., *Manual of American English Pronunciation*, New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1966.

APPENDIX G

CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST (Revised)

EXAMINERS' AND INTERPRETERS' COPY

LEVEL I

INTRODUCTION: Level I (grades 1, 2, and 3) of the CRC English Language Achievement Test includes six subtests. One is a group test and five are individually administered. Instructions for all of the subtests will be given first in Ponapean and then in English. Both sets of instructions should be given by a native or near-native speaker of each of the two languages. Questions may be asked before beginning each subtest. Answers should be as near as possible to a restatement of the printed instructions. Those who are administering the test should be sure the examples are understood, repeating them if necessary. All scoring is done on the individual score sheet. (A sample score sheet is given for Level I.)

GROUP TEST

SUBTEST 1--READING READINESS: A group test in which understanding the task is a prime factor. Test Booklet, page 1; total score 12.

DIRECTIONS: The examiner and the interpreter help the student to understand that he is to circle the word or symbol that is the same as the first word or symbol in each line. However, since this is a first test in the level some introductions or informal conversation should precede the instructions. HAVE STUDENT FORM OF TEST AT HAND.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Ari seri kan. Kihlang. (Hold up the copy of the test) Ke pahn rapahkiahda eu lepin lokaia (point to line of choice words) de eu song en mwohmw me duwehtehte lepin lokaia de mwohmw me mi nan kohpwa (point to words and symbols of the examples and nos. 1-12.) Oh ke pahn kapilkipene eu pwonopwon ih me duwehtehte me mi nan kohpwa.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: That's right, boys and girls. Look at the first word or drawing (symbol) in each line. (Point as above) Look now for the same word or drawing in the same line. When you find it then you will draw a circle around it. Let's practice. (Do examples using the Ponapean instructions which follow.)

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Kihlang line kaiu powe, mehnia me ke pahn kapilkipene eu pwonopwon? Iahduwen me oh me, (point to O and /) duwepenehte de soh? (children will answer "soh") Repeat with each symbol or word until they answer "eng" or "ehi". Pung, ale noumwail pencil oh kapilkipene lain pwonopwon. DO THE NEXT EXAMPLE THE SAME WAY AND THEN INSTRUCT THE CHILDREN TO CONTINUE AND COMPLETE THE PAGE WITHOUT PAYING ANY ATTENTION TO HELPING THE OTHERS NEAR THEM.

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Note Concerning above Instructions: With the lower grade children the use of the blackboard to get across the instructions is most helpful with the native language instructions.

RECOMMENDED ADDITIONAL GROUP TEST: The Individual Aural Discrimination Subtest, No. 3, has been adapted and pilot tested as a group test. It is suitable for all but the first grade as in the revised form. With further adaptation using a symbol instead of a word, pre-teaching in the answering technique, and possibly a shorter test it could also be used in the first grade. This new form is appended as Group Test 2 and should take the place of the individual Aural Discrimination Subtest, No. 3, unless proper facilities are not available for the successful administration to a group. (Second sentence in the introductory paragraph above would then read "Two are group tests and four ..." and the instructions printed on the student form should be given in both Ponapean and English.

LEVEL I INDIVIDUAL TESTS

SUBTEST 2: AURAL COMPREHENSION: Total score 18 points.
Mark on answer sheet.

DIRECTIONS: This the first of the Individual tests is designed to gain rapport with the students as well as measure aural comprehension. Some preliminary conversation may take place before the questions are asked. However, once the testing has begun the questions should be asked in order. The question may be repeated once. Failure to respond is marked wrong.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Ahnsouwet lih menet (de ohl menet) pahn wia peideng kei ong uhk ni lokaiahn waih. Ke pahn sapeng peidek kan oh idihada de wia me sounpadahk pahn mahsanih ong uhk. Kedehpa masak de perki ni omw pahnsapeng. I pahn kihong uhk karasepe:

Karasepe: Dahkot met? Idihada pwuhk.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: I'm going to ask you some questions. Don't be afraid. Just do the best you can.

---

1. What's your name?
2. How old are you?
3. Stand up!
4. Jump.
5. Raise your hand.
6. Show me your shirt (or dress).

(Continued on next page.)

7. Show me your ear.

8. Close your eyes.

9. Put your hands together.

10. What month is it?

11. Point to the house. (Use picture cards #1)

12. Point to the fish. #2

13. Point to the flowers. #3

14. Point to the four bananas. #4

15. Point to the line. #5

16. Point to the triangle. #6

17. Point to the yellow square. #7

18. Point to the red circle. #8

LEVEL I   INDIVIDUAL TESTS

SUBTEST 3: AURAL DISCRIMINATION: Total Score 36 points

DIRECTIONS: The examiner reads each word of an item pair separated by a one-second interval. Items may be repeated once more. The child is instructed to answer "yes" if the words sound the same, and "no" if the words sound different. (Some children may use "same" and "different". Some small subjects use the Ponapean which is acceptable: "ehi-soh" or "duwepenehte-sohte duwepenehte.")

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Ke pahn rong kanaieng oh sapeng "yes" (de "ehi") me ngilen lepin lokaia ka duwepenehte. Ke pahn sapeng "no" (de "soh") ma ngilen lepin lokaia ka sohte duwepenehte. I pahn kihong uhk karasepe: mwau--mwau   mai--mwam

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: I am going to say two words. If they sound the same, say "yes". If they sound different, say "no". Let's practice. Examples: Chair--Chair, fair--far. That's right. Let's continue. I will say the words once, but I may repeat them one more time as you wish.

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Word Pairs	Key	Word Pairs	Key
1. tap-top	no	19. sill-sell	no
2. cat-caught	no	20. ban-van	no
3. cup-cup	yes	21. should-shooed	no
4. pat-fat	no	22. pit-pit	yes
5. add-had	no	23. rot-rod	no
6. seat-sit	no	24. cats-catch	no
7. sew-saw	no	25. fine-vine	no
8. pair-pair	yes	26. pat-pet	no
9. not-nut	no	27. cap-cap	yes
10. rough-rub	no	28. bin-bean	no
11. bow-bow	yes	29. but-putt	no
12. berry-very	no	30. chin-chin	yes
13. kill-gill	no	31. pain-vain	no
14. dove-dove	yes	32. sopping-sobbing	no
15. at-hat	no	33. vast-fast	no
16. wear-were	no	34. batch-badge	no
17. tot-dot	no	35. leave-leaf	no
18. cap-cab	no	36. find-find	yes

LEVEL I INDIVIDUAL TESTS

SUBTEST 4: ORAL PRODUCTION (MIMICRY) Total score 80 points

DIRECTIONS: The examiner reads a sentence aloud and asks the child to repeat it exactly. Each sentence is scored on pronunciation and intonation-stress, according to the scales provided. Special attention is paid to the underlined letters in the sentence items for rating purposes.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Rong mwau oh alasang dah me soun padahk pahn inda. Mwurin sounpadahk e pahn inda lepin lokaia kan, ke pahn song inda duwehtehte me sounpadahk pahn inda. I pahn kihong uhk karasepe: Ranwet inenen mwau. I pahn kola pohn dohlo.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: I am going to say some words. Repeat them after me and say them exactly as I do. Let's practice. (Give two examples, using hello--with intonation and stress differences.) That's the idea. Now I am going to say some sentences. Repeat them after me and say them exactly as I do. Ready?

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SCALES:

PRONUNCIATION:

4	3	2	1	0
Near-native	Intelligible	Partially intelligible	Not intelligible	Nothing

INTONATION AND STRESS:

4	3	2	1	0
Near-native	Partially intelligible	Great difficulty	Barely intelligible	Nothing

SENTENCES:

1. I like to dance.
2. It's a chair.
3. Thank you very much.
4. He's an old man.
5. Shoo fly! Go away.
6. Where's your brother?
7. The four and five are together.
8. Bring me a pencil, please.
9. Jack and Jill went up the hill.
10. Kimiko's eating cookies.

LEVEL I INDIVIDUAL TESTS

SUBTEST 5 ORAL READING — Total 30 points

DIRECTIONS: The student is asked if there are any words on the list which he can read. If the child feels he can read some the examiner runs down the list (fairly slowly) and scores for each word read correctly. (Many children know immediately that they cannot read--score 0 and proceed.)

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Met ke pahn song wadek lepin lokaia koaros. Mie (showing the card) lepin lokaiame ke kak wadek nan pwungen lepin lokaia pwukat? Ke pahn tapiahda sang powe oh wadek ni ngil laud.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: (Pointing to words on the list) Look at each of these words. If you can read any of them, please read them out loud to me.

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THE WORDS IN ORDER OF EXPECTED DIFFICULTY ARE:

1. a
2. is
3. go
4. and
5. come
6. to
7. mother
8. father
9. girl
10. here
11. big
12. dog
13. she
14. school
15. four
16. name
17. he
18. live
19. their
20. boat
21. her
22. no
23. has
24. years
25. they
26. with
27. every
28. day
29. old
30. brother

LEVEL I   INDIVIDUAL TESTS

SUBTEST 6   GRAMMAR   Total 10 points

DIRECTIONS: The examiner reads the statements which are on the back of each card. At this level they are all designed to elicit plurals. The child completes the last statement.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Sounpadahk pahn kasalehieng uhk ekei kilel oh kosoia ekis duwen kilel pwukat. Mwuri ke pahn sewese sounpadahk pwen kanekehla eu sentence ong ni kilel pwukat. I pahn kihong uhk karesepe:

Met impwei ieu.
Met pil ieu impwei.
Ansouwet impwei me riaula.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: I am going to show you some pictures and tell you something about them. Then I want you to help me finish a sentence about each picture. I will show you what we will do. Give example.

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No. 1 "This is a ball.
Now there's another one.
Now there are two "what"? (balls)
(If no response) You would say "balls".

CORRECT RESPONSES: Score with X on answer sheet.

1. girls
2. flowers
3. dogs
4. houses
5. boxes
6. dishes
7. glasses
8. children
9. trees
10. hats

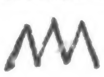
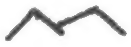
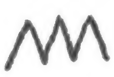
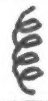
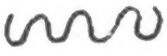
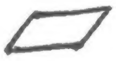
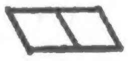
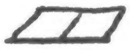
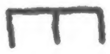
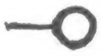
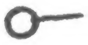
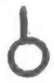
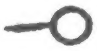
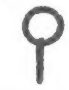
Note: Each item has a picture card with singular of object on the top half, plural below. Examiner points to singular and says "This is a _____." Then pointing to the added figure below, examiner says, "Now there's another one. Now there are two _____."

APPENDIX C

Subtest 1 **Reading Readiness** **Level I Group**

CRC English Language Proficiency Test Student Form: Answer Sheet

Name ____________________

0	/	▭	∆	0
it	on	of	it	an
1. 				
2. 				
3. $	S	%	#	$
4. ∃	∃	E	Ш	
5. 				
6. car	oar	car	ran	arc
7. feet	foot	feat	feet	leaf
8. tar	tar	rat	art	far
9. eat	cat	tea	ate	eat
10. stop	pots	tops	stop	spot
11. pan	and	dan	ban	pan
12. trial	trail	frail	trial	treat

Total Right ____________________
(12)

APPENDIX G

STUDENT ANSWER SHEET
CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

Level I Subtest 2
(Optional to replace
Individual Subtest 3)

Name ______________________

Directions:

Ke pahn rong kanaieng pwen ese ma ngilen lepin lokaia ka duwepenehte te sohte duwepenehte. Ma ngilen lepin lokaia ka duwepenehte ke pahn kapilkipene eu lain pwonopwon "ehi". Man ngilen lepin lokaia ka sohte duwepenehte ke pahn kapilkipene eu lain pwonopwon "soh". Sounpadahk pahn inda lepin lokaia ka karos pak riapak. Ke pahn rong numbe oh lokaia ka o ke pahn kapilkipene eu lain pwonopwon ong eu numbe. Ke pahn wia karasepe limau mas o.

KARASEPE:

	Same Duwepenehte	Different Sohte Duwepenehte		Same Duwepenehte	Different Sohte Duwepenehte		Same Duwepenehte	Different Sohte Duwepenehte
A.	ehi	soh	13.	ehi	soh	30.	ehi	soh
B.	ehi	soh	14.	ehi	soh	31.	ehi	soh
C.	ehi	soh	15.	ehi	soh	32.	ehi	soh
D.	ehi	soh	16.	ehi	soh	33.	ehi	soh
E.	ehi	soh	17.	ehi	soh	34.	ehi	soh
1.	ehi	soh	18.	ehi	soh	35.	ehi	soh
2.	ehi	soh	19.	ehi	soh	36.	ehi	soh
3.	ehi	soh	20.	ehi	soh			
4.	ehi	soh	21.	ehi	soh			
5.	ehi	soh	22.	ehi	soh			
6.	ehi	soh	23.	ehi	soh			
7.	ehi	soh	24.	ehi	soh			
8.	ehi	soh	25.	ehi	soh			
9.	ehi	soh	26.	ehi	soh			
10.	ehi	soh	27.	ehi	soh			
11.	ehi	soh	28.	ehi	soh			
12.	ehi	soh	29.	ehi	soh			

Total Correct ________

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SAMPLE SCORE SHEET
LEVEL I
CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST
(For use with Subtest 2, Aural Discrimination, being given as a group test with individual answer sheets.)

Name ______________________

Subtest 3: Aural Comprehension

	R	W
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		
11.		
12.		
13.		
14.		
15.		
16.		
17.		
18.		

Subtest 1
TOTAL RIGHT ______ (18)

TOTAL
Subtest 6 ______ (10)

Subtest 4: Oral Production

	P	I & S
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		
	(40)	(40)

Total
Subtest 3 ______ (80)

Subtest 6: Oral Grammar

	R	W
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		

Subtest 5: Oral Reading

R	R
1.	16.
2.	17.
3.	18.
4.	19.
5.	20.
6.	21.
7.	22.
8.	23.
9.	24.
10.	25.
11.	26.
12.	27.
13.	28.
14.	29.
15.	30.

Total Right
Subtest 5: ______ (30)

Summary of Scores:
Subtest 1 ______
2 ______
3 ______
4 ______
5 ______
6 ______

APPENDIX G

CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST (Revised)

EXAMINERS' AND INTERPRETERS' COPY

LEVEL II

INTRODUCTION: Level II of the CRC English Language Proficiency Test includes eleven subtests, seven group administered and five individual. Instructions for all the subtests will be given first in Ponapean and then in English. Both sets of instructions should be given by a native or near native speaker of each of the languages. Questions may be asked before beginning each subtest. Answers should be as near as possible to a restatement of the printed instructions. Those administering the tests should be sure that the examples are understood, repeating them if necessary. All answering by the students and scoring by the examiner will be on the answer and score sheets. EXAMINERS SHOULD HAVE A STUDENT COPY OF THE TEST AT HAND. (Score sheet is not included- should be developed according to local needs. May be duplicated or prepared by the students, or standard printed forms may be adapted for use.)

SUBTEST 1: AURAL DISCRIMINATION: Separate Answer Sheet Total 56 points

DIRECTIONS: This first test is based upon an activity with which the students are probably familiar, the discrimination between minimal pairs. The subtest cannot be administered if there is not an opportunity for all in the room to hear equally well. For this reason it may be necessary to test in smaller groups than for tests where hearing is not that vital. If the group is broken into smaller units for this test the following two aural sub-tests which also involve discrimination should also be administered at that time.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Ke pahn rong kanaieng pwen ese ngilen lepin lokaia ka duwepenehte de sohte dewepenehte. Ma ngilen lepin lokaia ka duwepenehte ke pahn kapilkipene eu lain pwonopwon "ehi". Ma ngilen lepin lokaia ka sohte duwepenehte ke pahn kapilkipene eu pwonpwon "soh". Ke pahn rong numbe oh lokaia ka o ke pahn kapilkipene eu lain pwonopwon eu eu number.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: I am going to say two words. If they sound the same, make a circle around the word "ehi". If they sound different, make a circle around the word "soh". I will first give the number of the line, then I will say the two words. I will then repeat the words one more time. We will do the four examples together. Find example A. on your answer paper. (Point) If I say "not-not" what will you circle? That's right "ehi". Let's do some more. Ex. B. "hot-shot". C. track-truck D. here-here. (Repeating the examples twice with slight pause.) Check answers.
Now let's continue. Number one--- GIVE WORD PAIRS LISTED BELOW:

1. tap-top
2. cat-caught
3. cup-cup
4. pat-fat
5. add-had
6. seat-saw
7. sew-saw
8. pair-pair
9. not-nut
10. rough-rub
11. bow-bow
12. berry-very
13. kill-gill
14. dove-dove
15. at-hat

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16. wear-were
17. tot-dot
18. cap-cab
19. sill-sell
20. ban-van
21. should-shooed
22. pit-pit
23. rot-rod
24. cats-catch
25. fine-vine
26. pat-pet
27. cap-cap
28. bin-bean
29. but-putt
30. chin-chin
31. pain-vain
32. sopping-sobbing
33. vast-fast
34. batch-badge
35. leave-leaf
36. find-find
37. pat-pet
38. put-put
39. bait-bet
40. bag-back
41. fair-fur
42. by-by
43. eater-ether
44. gin-din
45. I-high
46. fuss-fuss
47. lost-last
48. bin-fin
49. suit-soot
50. luck-lock
51. cape-cave
52. sore-shore
53. loaf-loaf
54. rougher-rubber
55. gauche-goes
56. was-was

LEVEL II GROUP TESTS

(Page 1 Group test)

SUBTEST 2: Reading Word-Recognition with Aural Discrimination

Total 15 points

DIRECTIONS: There should be equal opportunity for the students to hear the words clearly. The examiner will read the words twice after giving the number of the line. The students will write "a", "b" or "c" on their answer sheets.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Rong kanahieng pwe sang nan lepin lokaia silu pwukat sounpadahk pahn inda eu. (INSTRUCTIONS TO BE COMPLETED IN PONAPEAN DEPENDING UPON FORM OF ANSWER SHEET TO BE USED, writing A, B, C, or circling A, B, C.)

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: Listen carefully to the words I read to you. In each line find the word which is the same as the one I read to you. The words are marked "A", "B" and "C". (Point to line of words and down the column). If I say the word marked "A" write A on your answer sheet by the number. If I say the one that is marked "B" or "C" right "B" or "C" on your paper. I will give the number of the line and then I will say the word two times. Let's practice. See the example. (Point to the ex.) If I say "like" which letter would you write on your answer sheet? That's right-B. Are you ready for line one? We'll begin.

WORDS FOR THE EXAMINER:

1. eat
2. won
3. far
4. my
5. them
6. pig
7. rope
8. saw
9. tear
10. pan
11. it
12. coat
13. county
14. feather
15. warm

APPENDIX G

SUBTEST 3: AURAL COMPREHENSION AND DISCRIMINATION

Pages 2-7 Group Test
Total score 16 points

DIRECTIONS: The examiner reads a sentence which is descriptive of one of three pictures on the respective lines in the test booklet. The sentence is repeated once assuring equal opportunity for all in the test group to hear well. The student indicates his choice on the answer sheet.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Sounpadahk pahn kasalehda kilel siluh me kilelkihdi "A", "B", de "C", oh pahn kosoiahda eu kilel pwukat. (INSTRUCTIONS TO BE COMPLETED DEPENDING UPON NEW FORM TO BE USED.)

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: On this page you see three lines with three pictures in each line (point to test booklet). The pictures are marked "A", "B", "C". I will say something about one of the pictures in each line. You must decide which one I am talking about. Write on your answer sheet whether I am talking about "A", or "B", or "C".

For example look at these pictures. (Point to Example no. 1) If I said, "Here is a circle," which picture would I be talking about? That's right, "A". You would write "A" on your answer sheet (or you will circle "A" depending upon form.) Look at the next line. If I said, "The girl is sitting down," which picture would I be talking about? That's right--etc. (Any questions?) Let's continue.

SENTENCES TO BE READ (Should be read twice assuring equal opportunity to hear to all in the room. It is following this subtest that the students could be tested in a larger group if it was necessary to go into smaller groups because of poor conditions.)

1. The boy is walking toward the school.
2. The man showed the shirt to Peter.
3. I think most people usually don't like to work on Sundays.
4. John walks home from school every day.
5. The people in the store didn't understand me when I asked for a pepper.
6. The bowl is on the table.
7. My father has seeds in his jeep.
8. When my friend and I were gathering fire wood, I accidentally hurt his shin.
9. The students saw the girl's lip.

10. My little brother always causes trouble by playing with the mats.

11. I saw the man who was selling his boat.

12. Our principal owns a beautiful wide boat.

13. The shark was beaten by the man.

14. The mother watched the baby.

15. The woman heated the fish.

16. He told me to put it in the back.

SUBTEST 4: READING Page 8 of test booklet, total scores 10 points

DIRECTIONS: The student decides which of two sentences best describes the picture in each box. He indicates his answer on the answer sheet.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Met ke pahn wadek sentence riau oh ke pahn kileleti ma "A" de "B" kosokosohia mahlenkan de kilel akan.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: On this page look at each picture (point). Then look at the sentences under the picture and decide which one most clearly explains it. Write on your answer sheet "A" if the first sentence explains the picture or "B" if the second picture explains the picture. You will see that each sentence is marked "A" or "B". Let's do the examples first. "The circle is round. This is a square." Which sentence is talking about the picture, "A" or "B"? That's right, "A". Now let's look at the second example. "The girl is happy. The girl is sad" (same as 1.) Now do the rest of the page.

SUBTEST 5: READING COMPREHENSION Pages 9 and 10 in test booklet, 5 points

DIRECTIONS: The students read a letter on one page and a short story on the second page. Following each selection they choose the best ending to the statements about the material they have read. They indicate their choice on the answer sheet.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Kumwail pahn wadek kisin likou kiset (point) oh kosoi me mi nan pali 10 (point). Mwurin ke wadek kisin likou en kihlang sentence me mi pah. Wadek ni tapin sentence 1. Oh kihlang ma "A" de "B" de "C" punieng mwauri me kosang nan kisin likou. Mwurin ke wadek kosoi pot kihlang me "A", de "B", de "C", de "D" pungieng mwauri me koseng kosoi. (complete according to answer form decided upon)

APPENDIX G

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: On page 9 you will read the little story at the top of the page: (point) After you have read the story look at the sentences numbered 1, 2, and 3. The sentence begins and then there are three ways of ending the sentence which are marked "A", "B", or "C". Decide which one is the correct ending according to what you read in the story and write "A", "B", or "C" on your answer sheet. Then read the story on page 10. After you have read the story decide if "A", "B", "C", de "D" is the best ending for the sentence about the story. Just write one letter on your answer sheet.

SUBTEST 6: ENGLISH STRUCTURES, GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY

Pages 11-16. Total 50 points

DIRECTIONS: After doing three examples together the students are instructed to choose the correct form marked "A", "B", or "C" and write the appropriate number on their answer sheet.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Wadek mahs sentence pwukat oh intingihdi letter "A", "B" or "C" nan omwail doropwe en sapeng peidek kan me lepin lokaia kan pahn pwungie hng mwauri en sentence. Ke pahn wia karesepe siluh mas. Ni omw pahn kanekehla pali 12 en, ke pil pahn uhsehla pali 13 lel 17.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: On this subtest you will choose the correct way of saying 50 different sentences. For each sentence you are given three different ways which people might use in saying these sentences but only one way is right. See if "A", or "B" or "C" is the way the sentence should be written or spoken. When you have decided which is right put that letter on your answer sheet. We will do the three examples together first. Look at no. 1. The book belongs to Mary; it is A. his

B. hers

C. its.

Which is the right way to end that sentence? That's right, "hers", so you would write a "B" on your answer sheet. Now let's do the next one. (Continue making sure they understand the three positions for correct answers.) Now you will do each of the others by yourselves. When you have finished page 11 go on and do 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16.

SUBTEST 7: FREE COMPOSITION

Composition is on Separate Sheet, 50 points

DIRECTIONS: The examiner puts up a picture (family gathering) where all the students can see and asks them to write a story. They should be free to take as long as they feel necessary.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Kumwail en kihlang kilel kiset oh intingihdi kosoi pwot duwen kilel wet ni lokaiahn waih.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: Look at this picture. (point to picture) Please write me a story about this picture in English. You may take as long as you like to finish your story. Write as much as you can. Fill the paper if you can but if you cannot, then write as many sentences as you can. You may begin.

NOTE: There is a total of 50 points possible on the composition. The scale for scoring compositions is given below.

	low		middle		high
Ideas---------	2	4	6	8	10
Organization--	2	4	6	8	10
Wording-------	1	2	3	4	5
Flavor--------	1	2	3	4	5
Usage---------	1	2	3	4	5
Punctuation---	1	2	3	4	5
Spelling------	1	2	3	4	5
Handwriting---	1	2	3	4	5

LEVEL II INDIVIDUAL TESTS

SUBTEST 8: AURAL COMPREHENSION

Total score 28 points
Use Individual Score Sheet.

DIRECTIONS: This the first of the Individual Tests is designed to gain rapport with the student as well as measure aural comprehension. Some preliminary conversation may take place before the questions are asked. However, once the testing has begun the questions should be asked in order. The questions may be repeated once. Failure to respond is marked wrong.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Ahnsouwet lih menet (de ohl menet) pahn wia peideng kei ong uhk ni lokaiahn waih. Ke pahn sapeng peidek kan oh idihada de wia me sounpadahk pahn mahsanih ong uhk. Kedepa masak de perki ni omw pahn sapeng. I pahn kihong uhk karasepe: What is your name? Ehi, pung.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: My name is ____________________. I'm going to ask you some questions or tell you to do some things. Please answer or do what I ask you to do. Don't be afraid. Just do the best you can. Ready?

---

1. How old are you?
2. What do you call this (point to ear)?
3. What do you call this (point to finger)?

APPENDIX G

4. What do you call this (point to knee)?

5. What do you call this (point to elbow)?

6. Show me your eyes.

7. Show me your neck.

8. Show me your shoulder.

9. Say hello very loudly.

10. Say hello very softly.

11. Put your hands together and clap once.

12. How many eyes do you have?

13. How many chins?

14. How many toes?

15. What month is it?

16. How many tires are on a car?

17. Count from 5 to 10.

18. How many corners on this paper? (Use card #1)

19. Point to the flowers in the bottom picture. (Card #2)

20. Which picture shows fewer flowers? (Use card #2)

21. Which is heavier, a breadfruit or a flower?

22. Which is shorter, a man or a boy?

23. Which is slower, a car or a bicycle?

24. Which is smaller, a dog or a fly?

25. Which is bigger, a tree or a flower?

26. Point to the middle tree. (Use card #3)

27. Point to the first tree. (Use card #3)

28. Point to the next-to-the-last tree. (Use card #3)

APPENDIX G

SUBTEST 9: ORAL GRAMMAR

Total, 20 points.
Use Score Sheet.

DIRECTIONS: The examiner reads the statements which are on the back of each card. They are designed to elicit plurals, correct tenses of verbs, one possessive and one comparison of adjective form. The student must be helped to understand that he will complete the last statement.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Sounpadahk pahn kasalehieng uhk ekei kilel oh kosoia ekis duwen kilel pwukat. Mwuri ke pahn sewese sounpadahk pwen kanekehla eu sentence ong ni kelel pwukat. E pahn kihong uhk karesepe ni lokaiahn waih.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: I am going to show you some pictures and tell you something about them. Then I want you to help me finish a sentence about each picture. I will show you what we will do. Give Example 1.

> This is a ball.
> Now there's another one.
> Now there are two 'what'? balls. (If no response)
> You would say, balls. Here is another one.
>
> (Show Example 2)
> This is a boy who knows how to fish.
> He's fishing. Yesterday he did the same thing.
> What did he do yesterday?
> He 'what'? fished. (If no response) You would
> say, fished. Ready?

CORRECT RESPONSES: Score with X (correct) on the score sheet.

1. flowers
2. girls
3. coconuts
4. dogs
5. trees
6. hats
7. glasses
8. dishes
9. boxes
10. houses
11. boy's
12. preaching
13. jumped
14. skipped
15. sang
16. runs
17. digs
18. melted
19. teaches
20. fastest

APPENDIX G

SUBTEST 10: ORAL PRODUCTION (Mimicry) — Total 80 points

DIRECTIONS: The examiner reads a sentence aloud and asks the child to repeat it exactly. Each sentence is scored on pronunciation and intonation-stress, according to the scales provided. Special attention is paid to the underlined letters in the sentences for rating purposes.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Rong mwau oh alasang dah me sounpadahk pahn inda. Mwurin sounpadahk e pahn inda lepin lokaia kan, ke pahn song inda duwehtehte me sounpadahk pahn inda. I pahn kihong uhk karasepe: Panwet inenen mwau. I pahn kola pohn dohlo.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: I am going to say some words. Repeat them after me and say them exactly as I do. Let's practice. (Give two examples, using hello--with intonation and stress differences.) That's the idea. Now I am going to say some sentences. Repeat them after me and say them exactly as I do. Ready?

SCALES:

PRONUNCIATION:

4	3	2	1	0
Near-native	Intelligible	Partially intelligible	Not intelligible	Nothing

INTONATION AND STRESS:

4	3	2	1	0
Near-native	Partially intelligible	Great difficulty	Barely intelligible	Nothing

SENTENCES: The sentences may be repeated one more time if necessary.

---

1. It's a chair.
2. There's you brother Moses.
3. Bring me a sharp pencil, Bob.
4. He's an old man, isn't he?
5. Jack and Jill went up the hill.
6. She wishes she had fish.
7. Choose the first five feathers.
8. Tad likes to dance, Dad.
9. Kimiko's getting the cakes together.
10. Thank you for thinking of the tank.

APPENDIX G

SUBTEST 11: ORAL READING Total, 9 points.

DIRECTIONS: The student is asked to read a three-sentence story aloud. His word production, ease of reading, and understanding of the story are rated according to the scales provided.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Wadek ni ngil laud kosoih kiset oh mwuhr sounpadahk pahn peidek rehmw.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: Please read this story out loud to me. (Hand story card to the child.) Then I will ask you some questions which I want you to answer. You may start reading the story.

SCALES:
WORD PRODUCTION:

3	2	1	0
Near-native	Intelligible	Partially intelligible	Unintelligible

EASE AND SPEED:

3	2	1	0
Rapid, fluent	Slower, but steady	Considerable hesitation	Unintelligible

UNDERSTANDING:

3	2	1	0
Answers all three questions	Answers two questions	Answers one	No correct answers

THE STORY: (The child reads from the story card.)

> "I'm so sad," said the little girl. "A pig ate all my candy."
> "Don't feel sad," said her mother. "I'll buy you some more."
> "Oh, thank you, Mother!" cried the girl.

THE COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. Why was the girl sad?

2. What did her mother say that she would do?

3. Was the girl's father in the story?

END OF LEVEL II SUBTESTS

APPENDIX G

CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST
(Sample Student Answer Sheet)

Level II Subtest 1

Name ____________________

DIRECTIONS: (Note: This is a sample answer sheet which can be used with the directions given in the examiners copy. However, other answer sheets could be developed for local use either by the students themselves or duplicated for them. Answers do not need to be "yes" or "no" could be "1" for same, "2" for different, etc.)

Same Duwepenehte	Different Sohte Duwepenehte	Same Duwepenehte	Different Sohte Duwepenehte	Same Duwepenehte	Different Sohte Duwepenehte
A. ehi	soh	17. ehi	soh	37. ehi	soh
B. ehi	soh	18. ehi	soh	38. ehi	soh
C. ehi	soh	19. ehi	soh	39. ehi	soh
D. ehi	soh	20. ehi	soh	40. ehi	soh
1. ehi	soh	21. ehi	soh	41. ehi	soh
2. ehi	soh	22. ehi	soh	42. ehi	soh
3. ehi	soh	23. ehi	soh	43. ehi	soh
4. ehi	soh	24. ehi	soh	44. ehi	soh
5. ehi	soh	25. ehi	soh	45. ehi	soh
6. ehi	soh	26. ehi	soh	46. ehi	soh
7. ehi	soh	27. ehi	soh	47. ehi	soh
8. ehi	soh	28. ehi	soh	48. ehi	soh
9. ehi	soh	29. ehi	soh	49. ehi	soh
10. ehi	soh	30. ehi	soh	50. ehi	soh
11. ehi	soh	31. ehi	soh	51. ehi	soh
12. ehi	soh	32. ehi	soh	52. ehi	soh
13. ehi	soh	33. ehi	soh	53. ehi	soh
14. ehi	soh	34. ehi	soh	54. ehi	soh
15. ehi	soh	35. ehi	soh	55. ehi	soh
16. ehi	soh	36. ehi	soh	56. ehi	soh

APPENDIX G

CRC English Language Proficiency Test
Student Answer Sheet

Level II Subtest 7

Name ____________________

Free Composition

Directions: Look at the picture and write a story about it in English.

Total Score ______
50

APPENDIX G

STUDENT FORM
CRC - ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

SUBTEST 2

LEVEL II
Group

DO NOT WRITE ON THIS PAPER

Reading-Word Recognition & Aural Discrimination

DIRECTIONS: (If printed directions are desired use the vernacular.)

Example: A. eel B. like C. drum

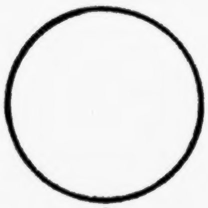
1)	A. cat	B. eat	C. tea
2)	A. won	B. now	C. own
3)	A. tar	B. far	C. rat
4)	A. may	B. mile	C. my
5)	A. then	B. there	C. them
6)	A. big	B. dig	C. pig
7)	A. robe	B. rope	C. rode
8)	A. saw	B. was	C. sew
9)	A. fear	B. dear	C. tear
10)	A. fan	B. pan	C. ban
11)	A. hit	B. bit	C. it
12)	A. goat	B. coat	C. cot
13)	A. counting	B. country	C. county
14)	A. father	B. feather	C. further
15)	A. war	B. form	C. warm

APPENDIX G

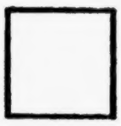
CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST LEVEL II AND III, Subtest 3
STUDENT FORM AURAL COMPREHENSION AND DISCRIMINATION (III- 2)

DIRECTIONS: Ke pahn kilang mwau kilel siluh pukat me kilelkihdi "A", "B" de "C". Sounpadahk pahn kosoiahda ehu kilel pukat ong eh ehu lain. Ke pahn rong mwau pwen ese ma e kosohia duen "A", "B" de "C". Intingihdi "A", "B" de "C" nan ohmw doropwe en sapeng duen me e kosoihda.

EXAMPLE 1 (KARASEPE 1)



A



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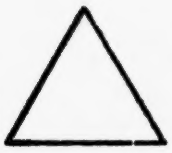
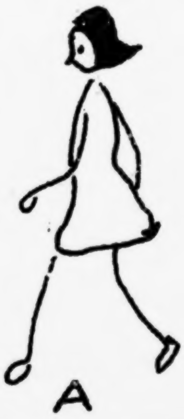
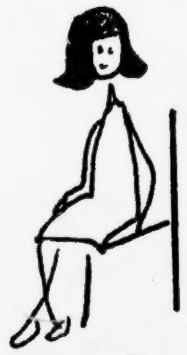


C

EXAMPLE 2 (KARASEPE 2)



A



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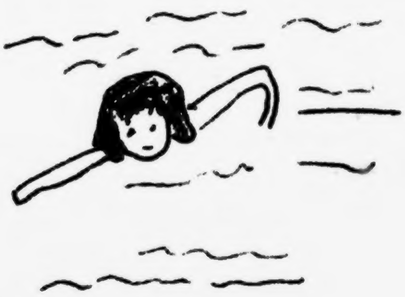
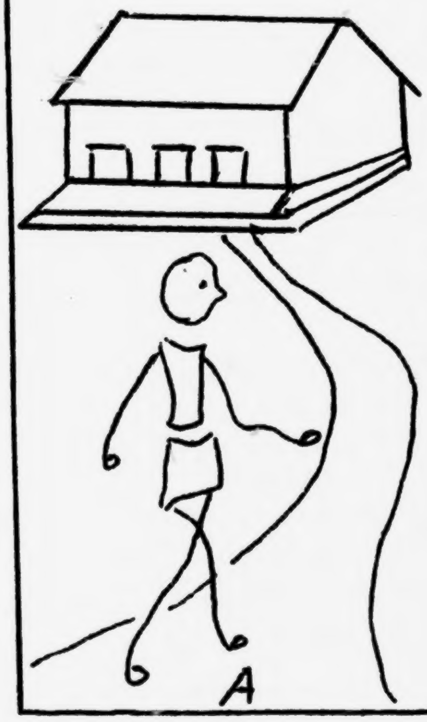


C

①



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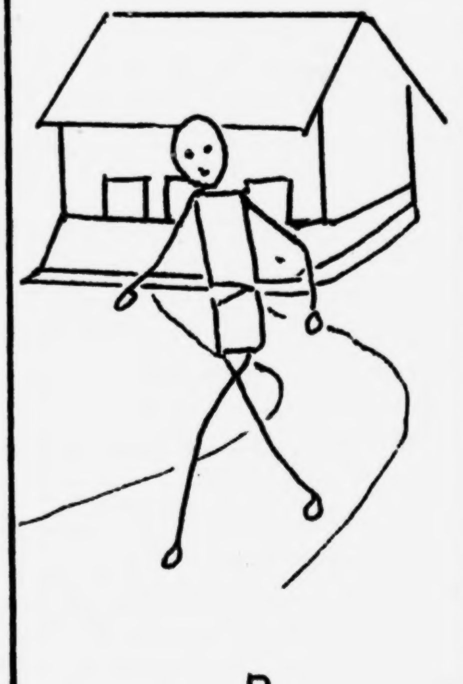

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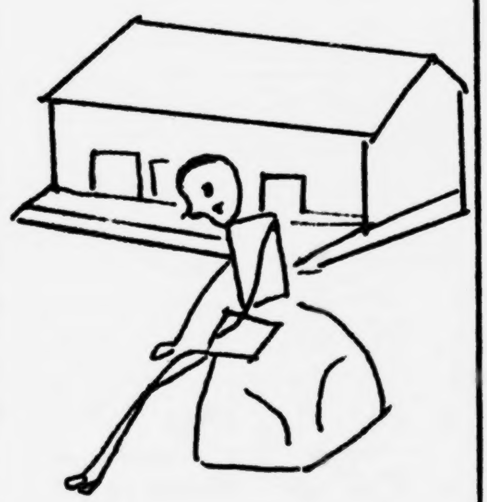

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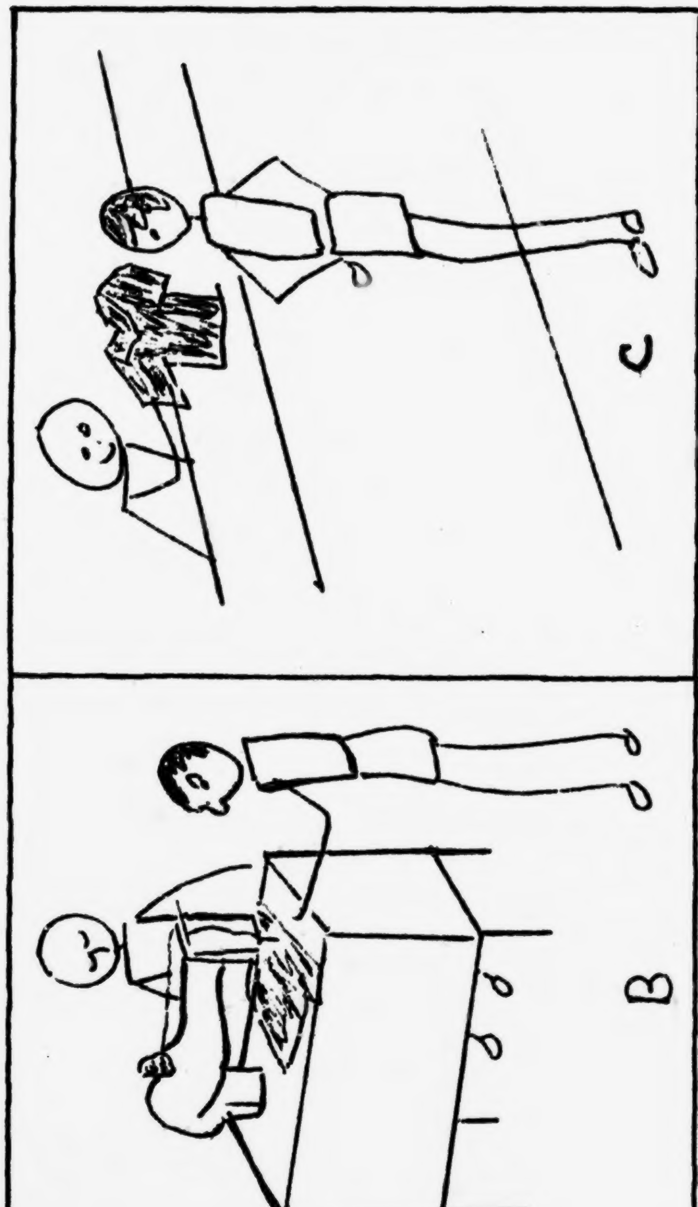
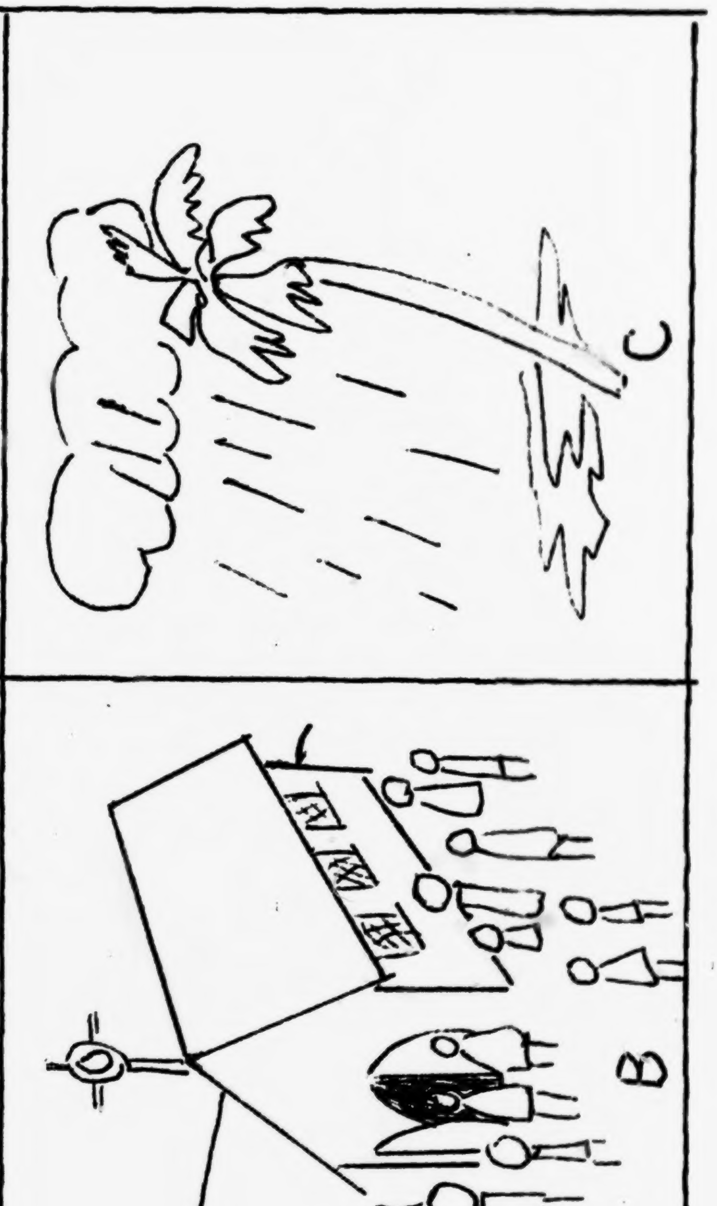

②
2.93
A
B
C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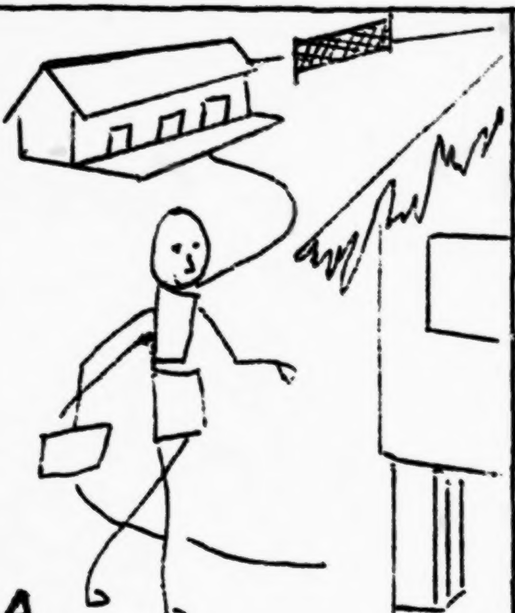
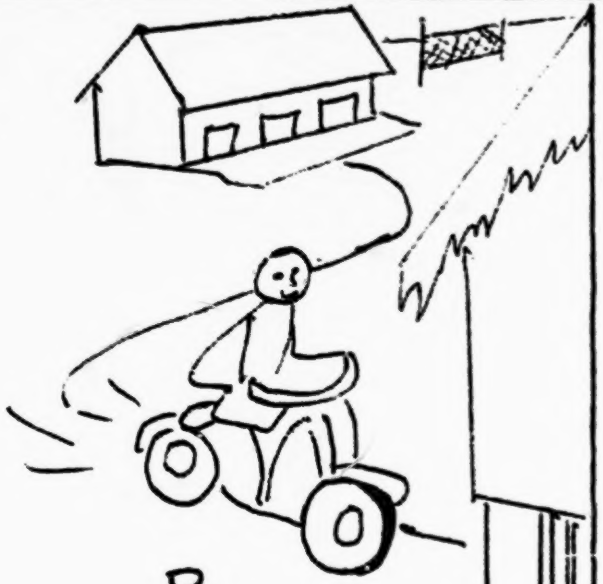


~~A~~ A



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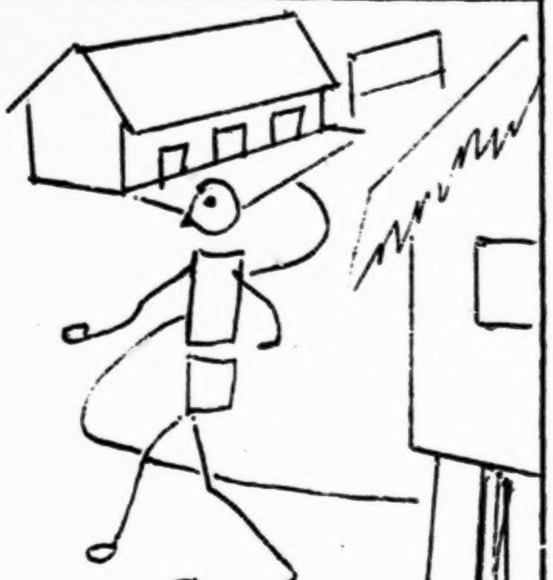

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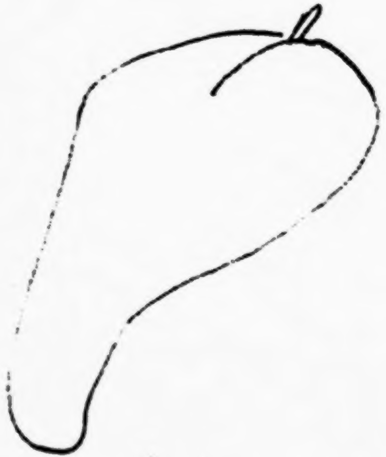

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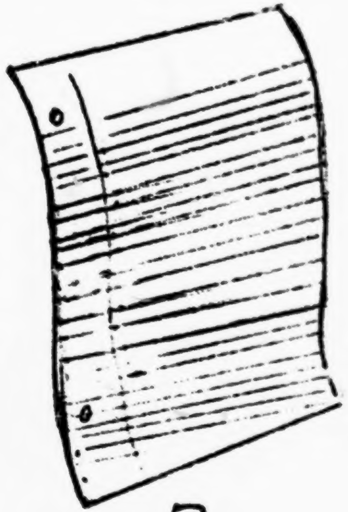

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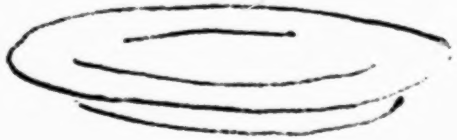

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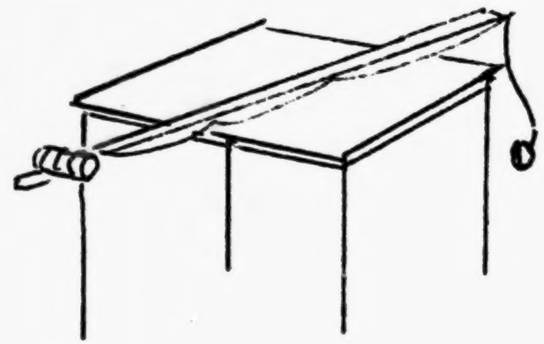

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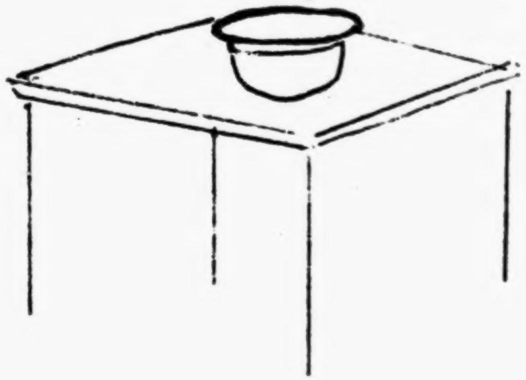

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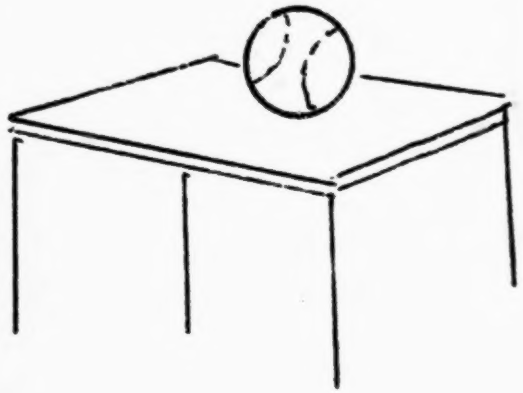

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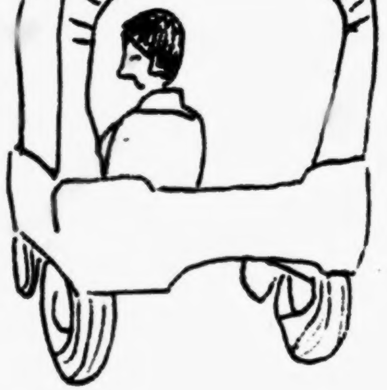
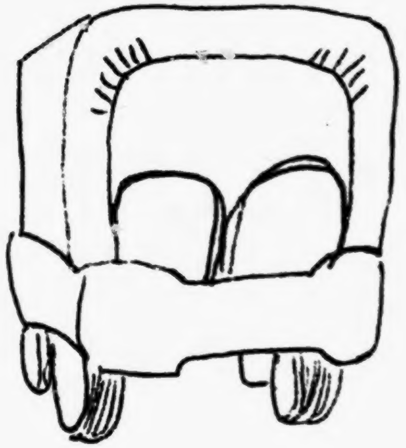


A



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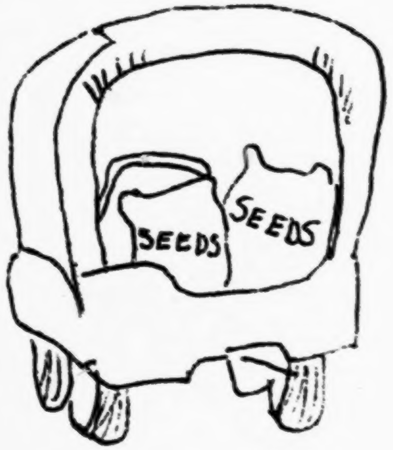
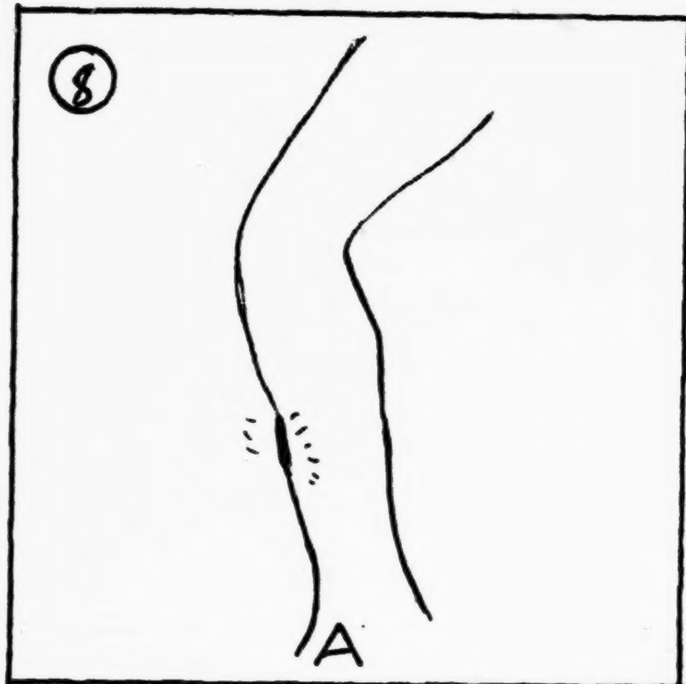

SEEDS
SEEDS

C

⑧



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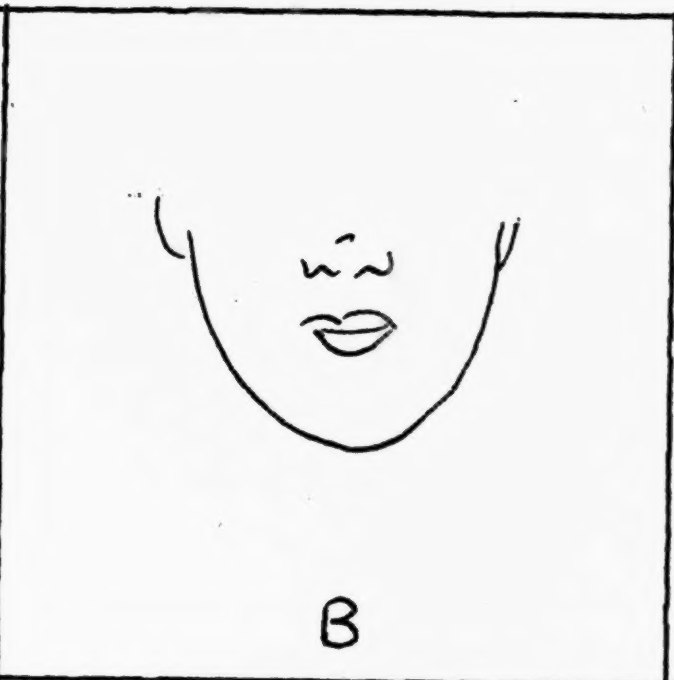

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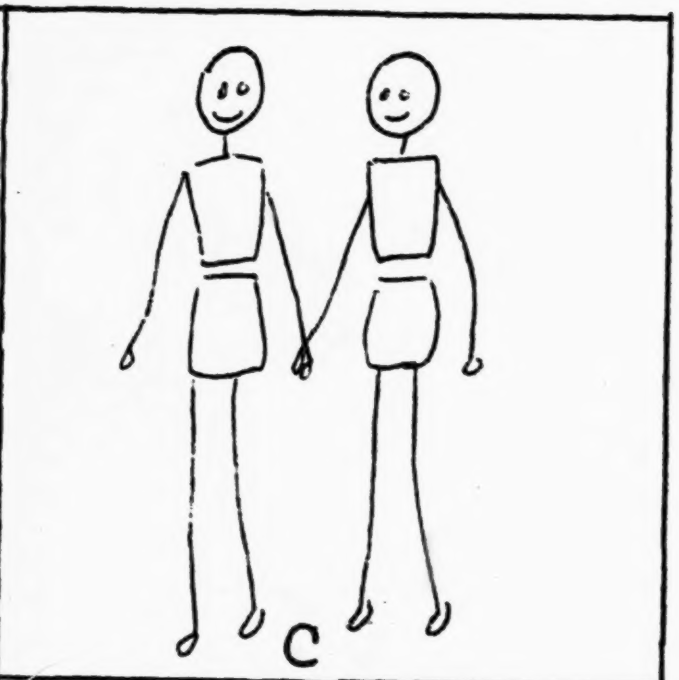
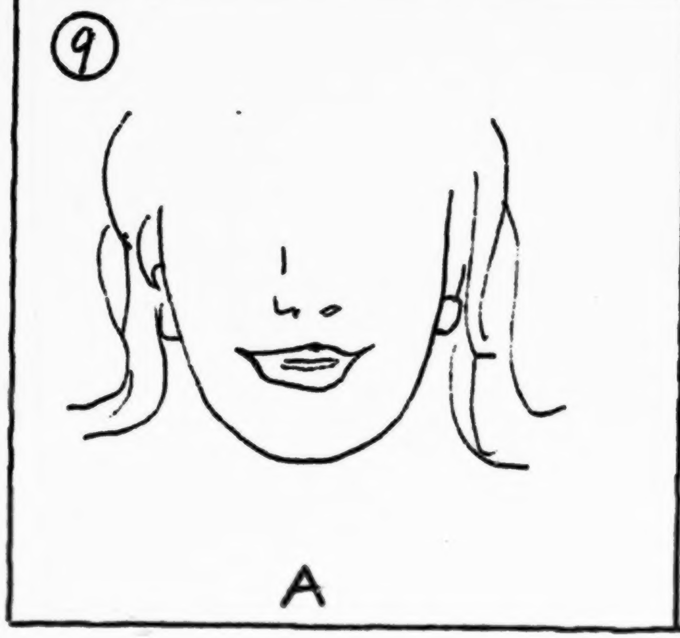


C

⑨



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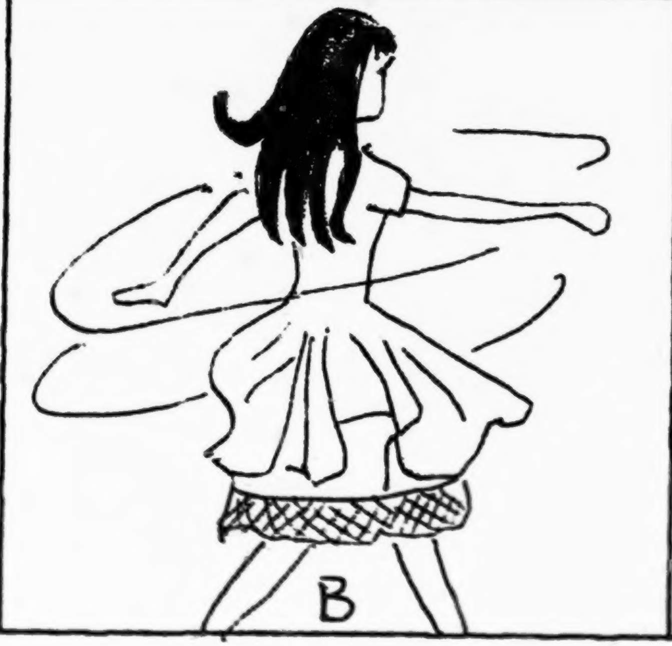

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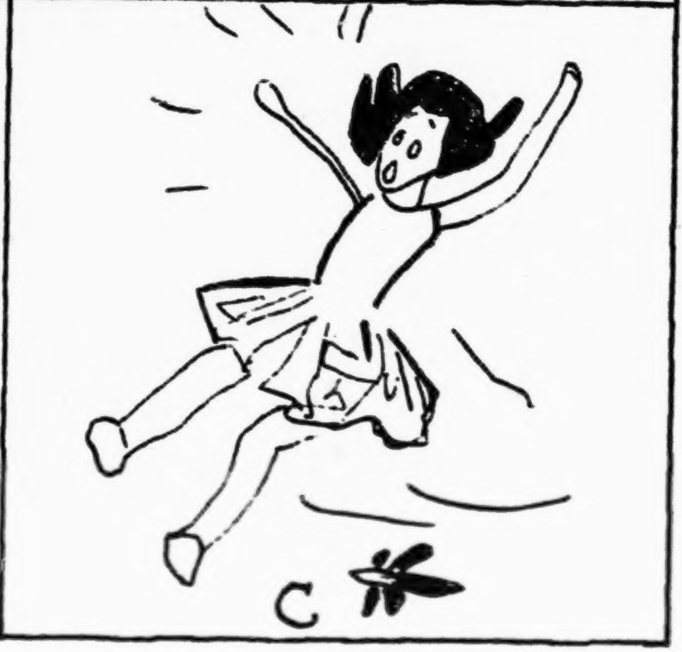

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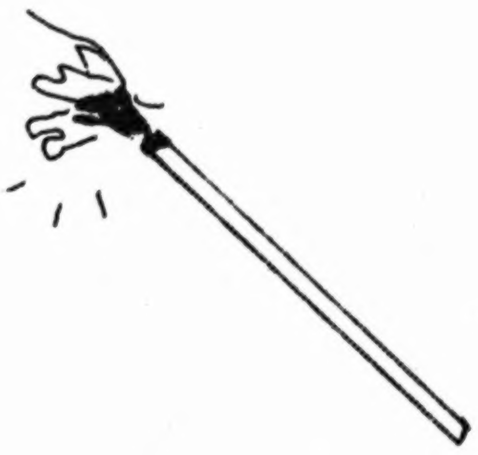
⑩



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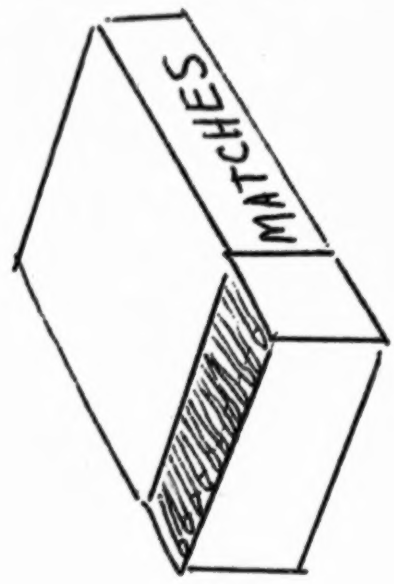

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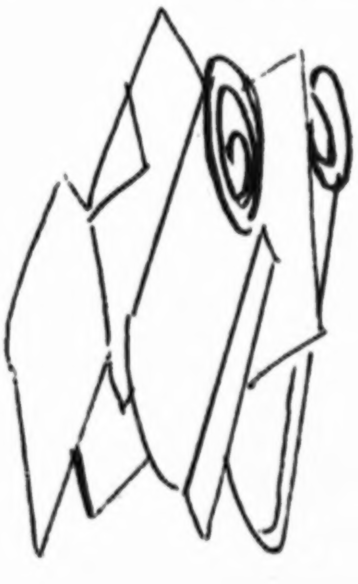
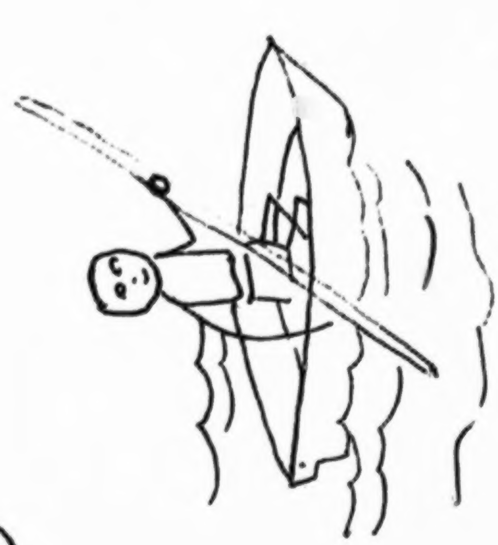


C

⑪



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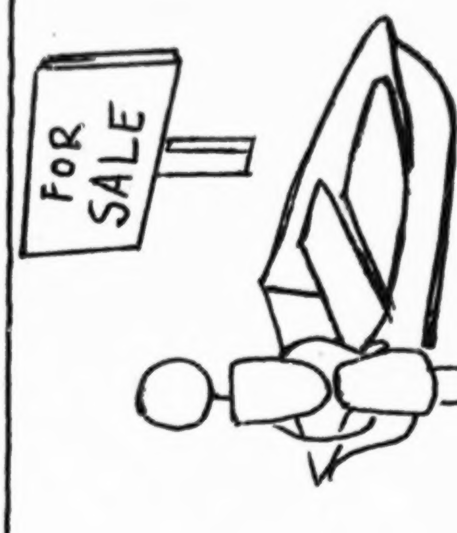

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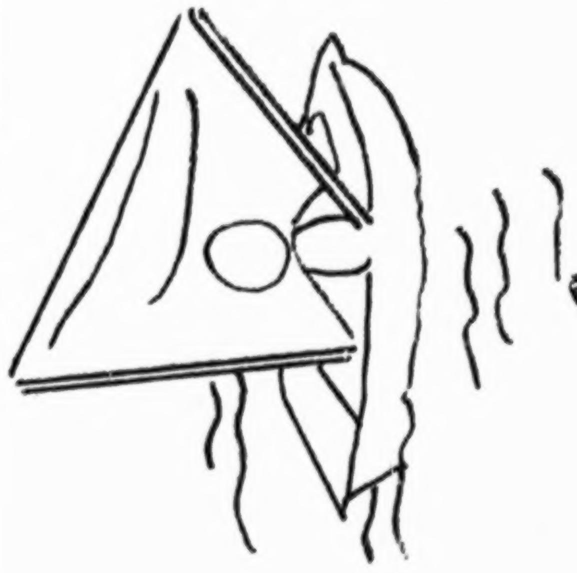

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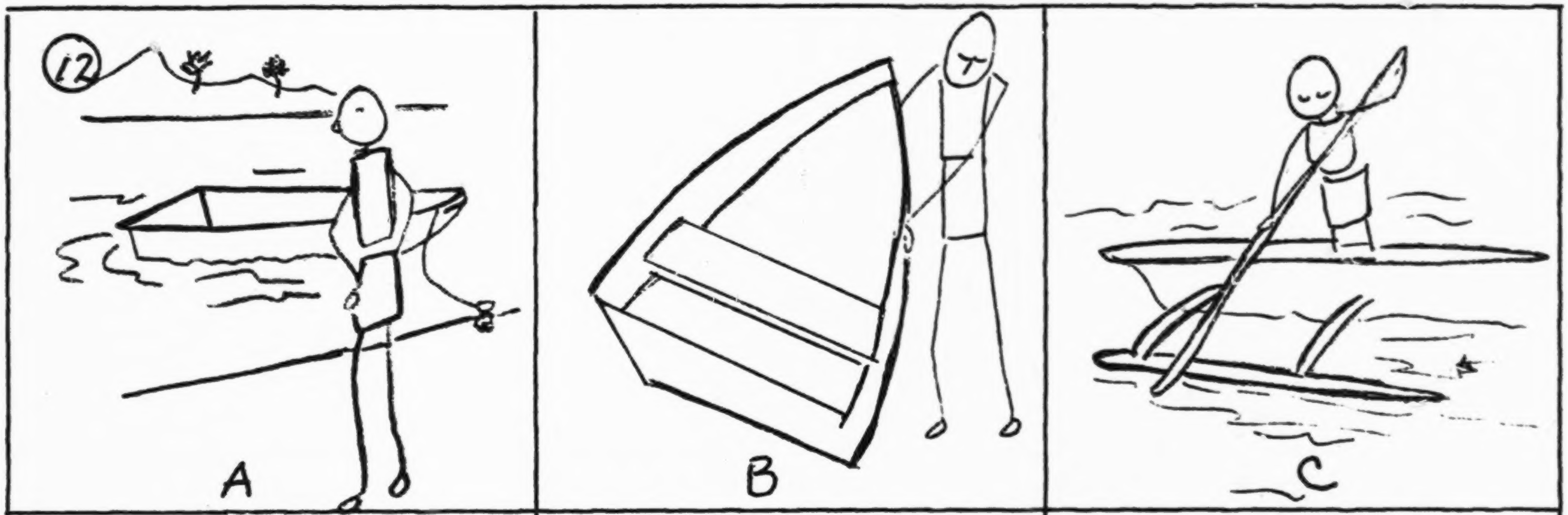
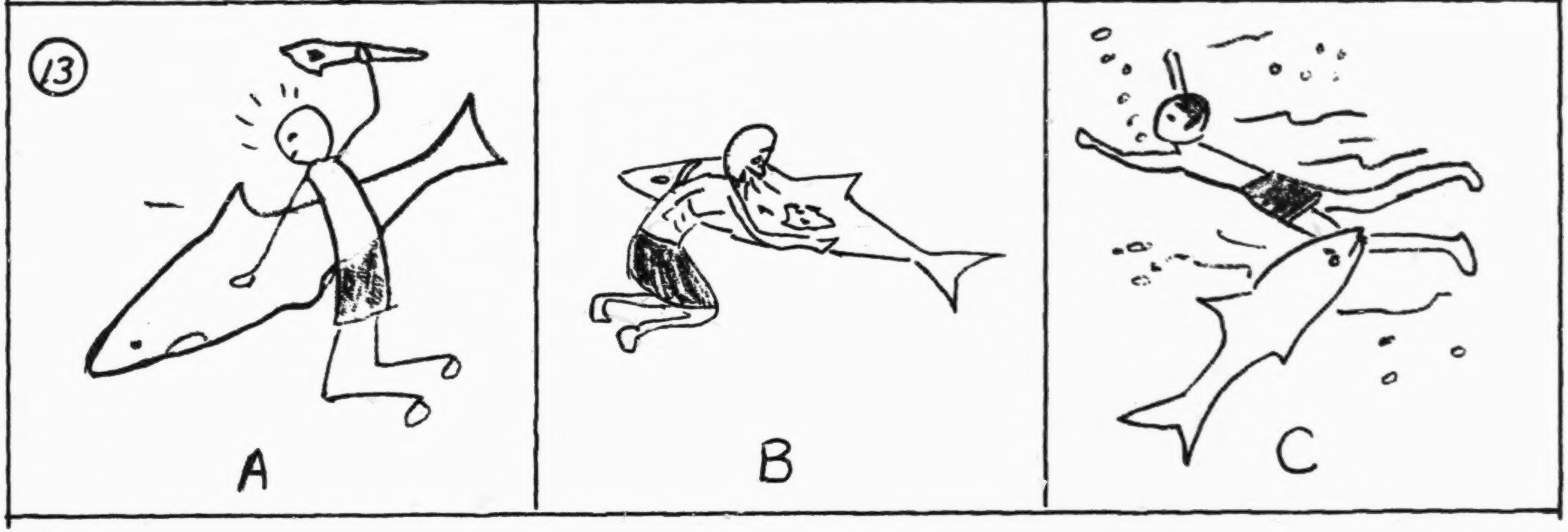

12
A
B
C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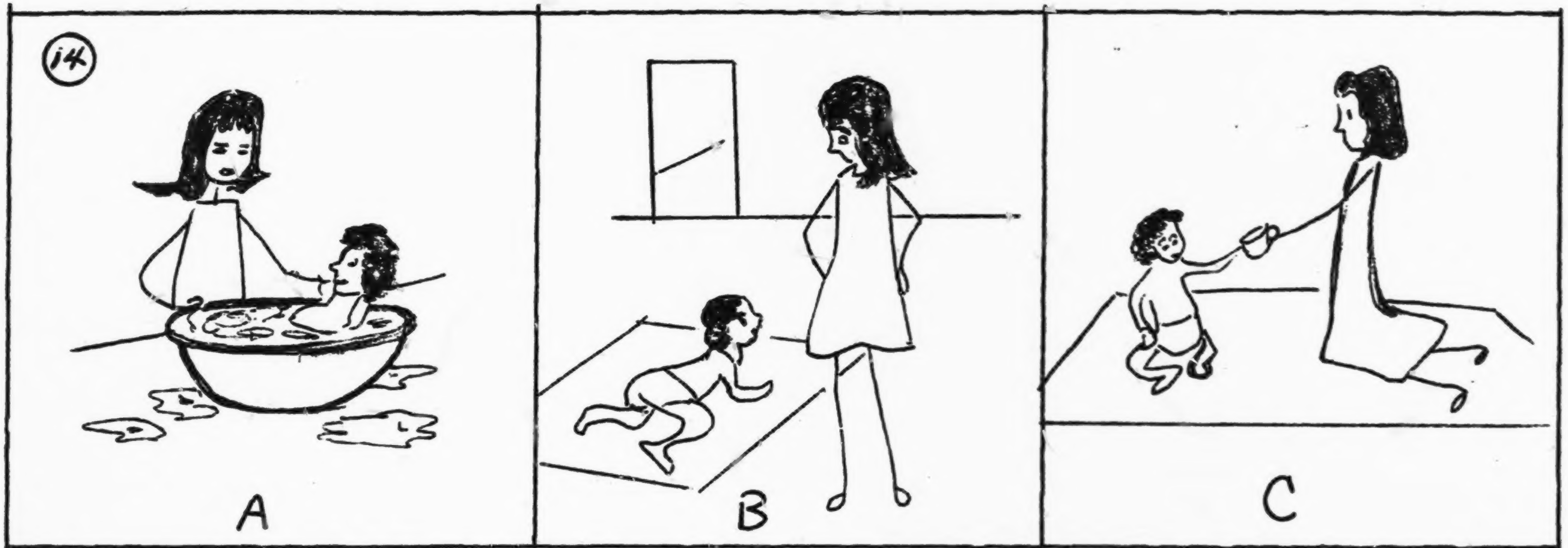
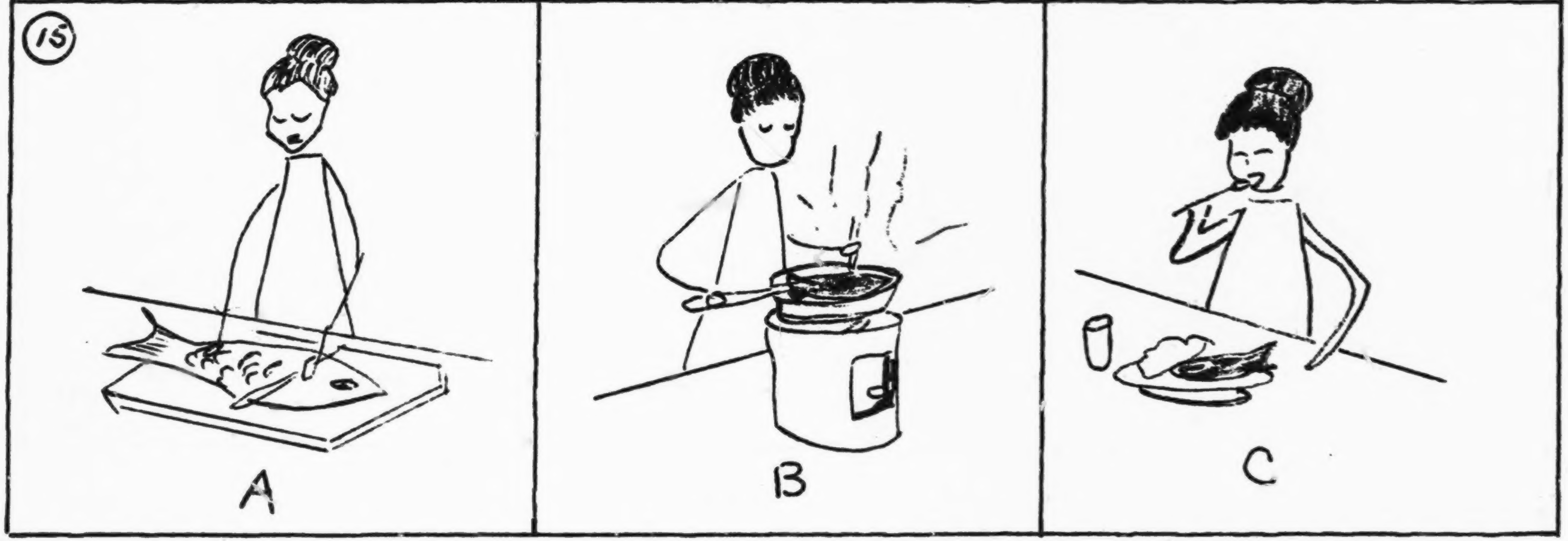
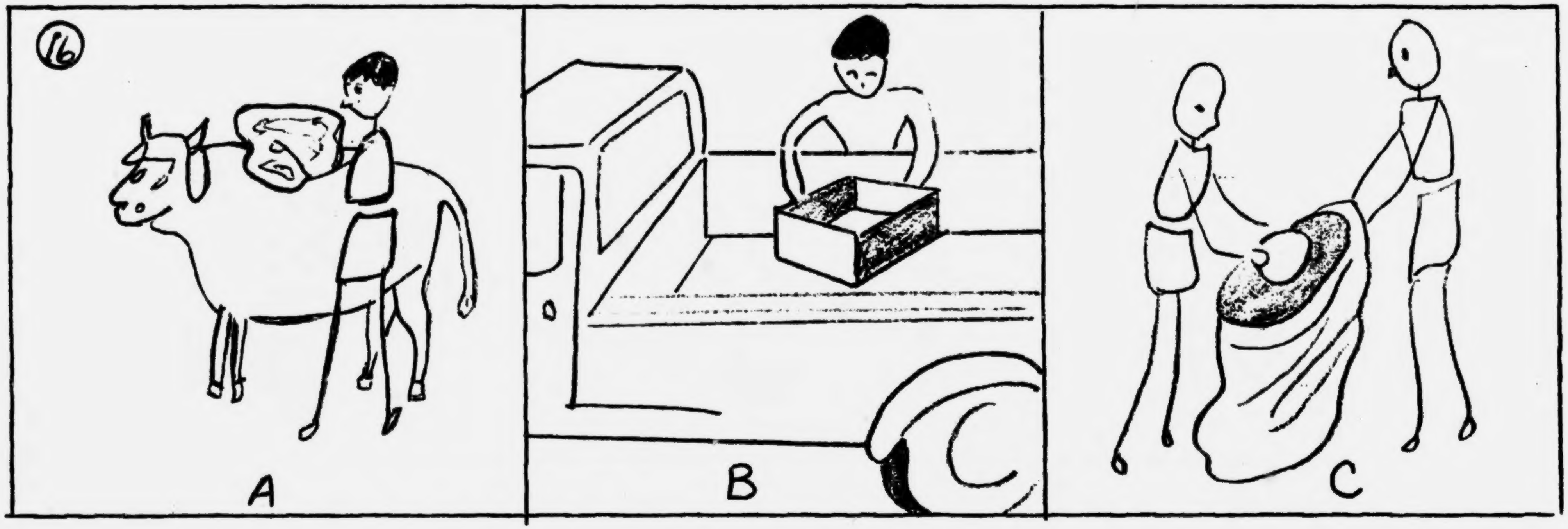
A
B
C


14
A
B
C


15
A
B
C

APPENDIX G



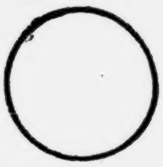
APPENDIX G

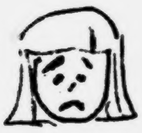
SUBTEST 4

READING

LEVEL II
Group

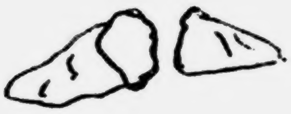
Example: A.___The circle is round.
B.___This is a square.





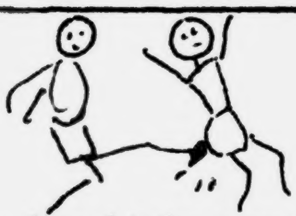
A.___The girl is happy.
B.___The girl is very sad.

1.



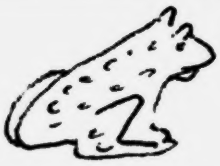
A.___There is no more taro.
B.___The taro is almost gone.

2.



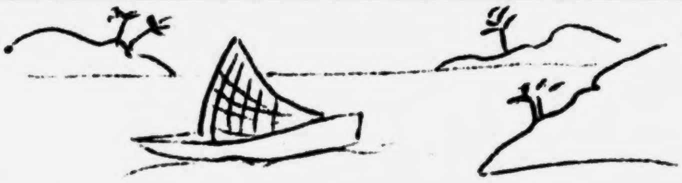
A.___One boy kicks another boy.
B.___One boy hits another boy.

3.



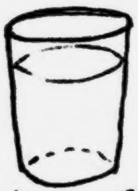
A.___An insect can jump.
B.___A toad can jump.

4.



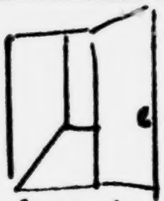
A.___A boat is sailing in the lagoon.
B.___A boat is in the lagoon.

5.



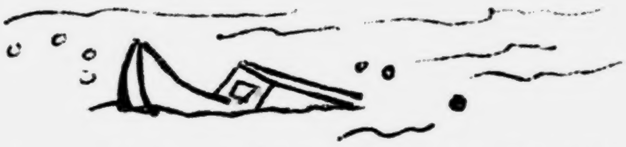
A.___Here is a glass of water.
B.___Here is a glass of mud.

6.



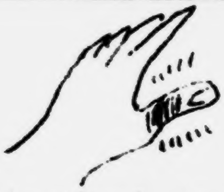
A.___The door is open.
B.___The door is shut.

7.



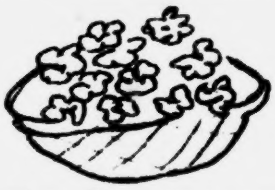
A.___I see a boat that is floating.
B.___I see a boat that is sinking.

8.



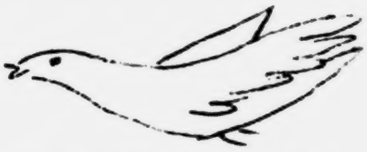
A.___His thumb is sore.
B.___He hurt his finger.

9.



A.___The flowers are on the table.
B.___Here is a basket of flowers.

10.



A.___The bird is flying.
B.___The bird is eating the seeds.

APPENDIX G

STUDENTS FORM
CRC - ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

SUBTEST 5

LEVEL II
Group

Reading Comprehension

DIRECTIONS: (Note: Printed directions at this level should be in the vernacular and should be adapted to the type of answer sheet being used.)

Part A

Here is a letter that Maria got from her friend Merlina, who lives across the lagoon.

Dear Maria,

It has been raining so hard that I could not come in the boat to see you. I am alone now with my father and mother because my sister has gone away to school. She will not come home for many months. My brother went away to work, but he will come home next week.

I hope I will see you soon.

Your friend,

Merlina

1. Merlina's brother

   a. ___will be away for many months.

   b. ___is taking care of Merlina because her parents are away.

   c. ___is working away from home.

2. Merlina could not visit Maria because

   a. ___her sister was not home.

   b. ___it was raining too hard.

   c. ___the boat has a hole in it.

APPENDIX G

3. How many people in the family are at home?

a. ___two

b. ___three

c. ___four

Part B

Reading Comprehension

Jonah had been walking for a long time. He was hot and thirsty. "I wish I had something to drink," he said. Just then a coconut fell out of a tree. Jonah cut the top off the coconut with his big knife. He took a long drink. "I'm a lucky boy," he said.

1. Jonah wanted a drink because he

a. ___was hungry.

b. ___was thirsty.

c. ___had been walking.

d. ___was tired.

2. Jonah was lucky because

a. ___the coconut was big.

b. ___he had a big knife.

c. ___the coconut fell from the tree.

d. ___he was hot and thirsty.

APPENDIX G

STUDENT FORM
CRC - ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

SUBTEST 6 LEVEL II
Group

DO NOT WRITE ON THIS PAPER

English Structure, Grammar and Vocabulary

DIRECTIONS: (If printed use vernacular. Directions should be adapted for the type of answer sheet being used.)

EXAMPLES:
KARASEPE:

I. The book belongs to Mary; it is
a. his
b. hers
c. its

II. The book is ____ the room.
a. in
b. into
c. on

III.
a. How are you today?
b. How are today you?
c. How today are you?

---

1. We ____ the time.
a. don't have
b. not have
c. no have

2. They meet ____ eight o'clock.
a. at
b. to
c. on

3. He ____ to go with you.
a. will
b. wills
c. wants

4.
a. Does the wind blow hard?
b. Does the wind blows hard?
c. Blows hard the wind?

5. ____ me swim!
a. Look
b. Look at
c. Look for

6.
a. Is eating your father?
b. Is your father eating?
c. Eating is your father?

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

APPENDIX G

English Structure, Grammar and Vocabulary

SUBTEST 6
LEVEL II
Group

---

a. had
7. He b. made a good time.
c. did

a. something to eat.
8. He wants b. something for to eat.
c. something for eat.

a. go
9. I want you b. to go Tuesday.
c. going

10. a. I gave it him.
b. I gave to him it.
c. I gave it to him.

a. children.
11. They have two b. child.
c. childs.

a. some.
12. No, thank you, I have b. any.
c. other.

13. a. How liked you the trip?
b. How you liked the trip?
c. How did you like the trip?

a. his.
14. The boat belongs to Mark; it is b. hers.
c. its.

15. a. Does
b. Is he have the ball?
c. Has

a. must
16. We b. ought go.
c. must to

a. what
17. My hat is as big b. that yours.
c. as

a. She
18. b. It is a good movie.
c. He

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

APPENDIX G

English Structure, Grammar and Vocabulary

SUBTEST 6

LEVEL II
Group

---

a. waited
19. He b. waited for the train.
c. awaited for

20. a. How
b. What should he say?
c. When

a. take
21. We b. give a walk every day.
c. do

a. said
22. She b. told me the answer.
c. talked

a. you do
23. Please b. do it.
c. to do

24. a. Does
b. Is he have a ball?
c. Has

a. other.
25. He has a boat but wants b. one.
c. another one.

a. are being
26. They b. do be in class.
c. are

27. a. How you do this?
b. How do you do this?
c. How do you this?

a. a useful
28. Is this b. an useful tool?
c. useful

a. a lot of
29. Mary has b. much of ice cream.
c. many

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

APPENDIX G

English Structure, Grammar and Vocabulary

SUBTEST 6 LEVEL II
Group

---

a. found
30. He couldn't b. finding his hat.
c. find

a. shall going
31. We b. will going to a party.
c. are going

32. a. Is near the hotel the dock?
b. Is the dock near the hotel?
c. Is the dock the hotel near?

33. a. She
b. He married my sister.
c. It

a. am
34. John and I b. are students.
c. be

a. half eight.
35. The time is b. half past seven.
c. seven and a half.

36. a. At
b. In Christmas day they go to church.
c. On

a. the beautifullest
37. Anita is b. the most beautiful girl in the class.
c. anything

38. a. Didn't he be
b. Wasn't he a good singer?
c. Was not he

a. much
39. There is not b. many news in the paper.
c. much of

a. gooder
40. Mary is b. better in schoolwork than Anita is.
c. more good

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

APPENDIX G

English Structure, Grammar and Vocabulary

SUBTEST 6

LEVEL II
Group

---

a. something
41. He doesn't have b. nothing for you.
c. anything

a. lost
42. Henry was sick yesterday and b. absenced his classes.
c. missed

a. my son's.
43. The shirt is b. to my son.
c. of my son.

44. a. How much the books cost?
b. How much cost the books?
c. How much do the books cost?

a. no?
45. Ponape is warm, b. not true?
c. isn't it?

a. won't she?
46. She comes tomorrow, b. doesn't she?
c. isn't she?

a. pair of zori.
47. I have a new b. pairs of zoris.
c. pair of zoris.

a. on
48. He turned b. down the radio to make it louder.
c. up

a. tooth.
49. The baby has five b. teeth.
c. teeths.

a. girl have
50. Every b. girls have new books.
c. girl has

Adapted from DIAGNOSTIC TEST FOR STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE, by A.L. Davis, the American Language Center, The American University, Washington, D.C.

APPENDIX G

CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

EXAMINER'S AND INTERPRETER'S COPY

LEVEL III

INTRODUCTION: Level III of the CRC English Language Proficiency Test includes eight subtests, five group tests and three individually administered. Instructions for all of the subtests will be given first in Ponapean and then in English. (At this Level, particularly in the individual tests and if the examiner knows that the student understands the English instructions, the Ponapean may be omitted.) Both the sets of instructions should be given by a native or near native speaker of each of the languages. Questions may be asked before beginning each subtest. Answers should be as near as possible a restatement of the printed instructions. Those administering the tests should be sure that the examples are understood, repeating them if necessary. All answering by the students and scoring by the examiner will be on the answer and score sheets. EXAMINERS SHOULD HAVE A STUDENT COPY OF THE TEST AT HAND. (Score sheets are not included. They should be developed according to local preference.)

LEVEL III GROUP TESTS

SUBTEST 1: AURAL COMPREHENSION Page 1 of Student Test Booklet. 5 points.

DIRECTIONS: The examiner reads a paragraph aloud two times. The students then read the sentences in the test booklet and select the best answer. The letter of the correct answer is indicated on the answer sheet.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Rong mwau paragraph me sounpadahk pahn wadek. Pak riau me e pahn wadawadada oh murin e wadawadada kumwail pahn wadek sentence pwukat me kilelkihdi numbe 1 lel 5. Ke pahn pil wadek imwilan sentence me kilelkihdi "a, b, c, d." Ke pahn pilepileta ma "a" de "b" de "c" de "d" pwungiehng mwauri me kosang paragraph. Ke pahn intingihti letter "a de b de c de d" nan doropwe en sapeng peidek kan.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: I am going to read a paragraph to you two times. Listen carefully while I read it aloud. Then I want you to read the sentences on page 1 of your test booklet. You are to choose which of the endings, marked "a, b, c, or d" best completes the sentence. Write the letter of the best ending on your answer sheet. Now listen carefully while I read the paragraph.

PARAGRAPH TO BE READ:

> Every country has its typical dishes. In the United States, people eat pumpkin pie at Thanksgiving and fruit cake at Christmas. Pumpkin pie is usually covered with whipped cream and is served for dessert after the Thanksgiving turkey. Fruit cake is a very expensive kind of cake which housewives make for

Christmas. They sometimes make enough fruit cake to give some to their relatives. In the United States, then two typical dishes are pumpkin pie and fruit cake.

Instructions: Now I will read the paragraph again.

Following the second reading: Now look at the example. "This selection is about---" Which is the correct ending? That's right. You would write "C" on your answer sheet. Now finish the rest of the page.

SUBTEST 2: AURAL COMPREHENSION AND DISCRIMINATION

Pages 2-7 Test Booklet
Total score 16 points

DIRECTIONS: The examiner reads a sentence which is descriptive of one of three pictures on the respective lines of the test booklet. The sentence is repeated once more assuring equal opportunity for all in the test group to hear well. The student indicates his choice on the answer sheet.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Sounpadahk pahn sasalehda kilel siluh me kilelkihdi "A", "B", de "C" oh pahn kosoiahda eu kilel pwukat. (INSTRUCTIONS TO BE COMPLETED DEPENDING UPON WHETHER THERE WILL BE A PREPARED ANSWER SHEET OR PLAIN SHEET.)

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: On this page you see three lines with three pictures in each line (point to test booklet.) The pictures are marked "A", "B", or "C". I will say something about one of the pictures in each line. You must decide which one I am talking about. Write on your answer sheet whether I am talking about "A", "B", or "C".

For example look at these pictures. (Point to Example 1.) If I said "Here is a circle", which picture would I be talking about? That's right "A". You would write "A" on your answer sheet. (Or circle "A", depending upon form.) Look at the next line. If I said, "The girl is sitting down," which picture would I be talking about? That's right---etc. Any questions? Let's continue.

1. The boy is walking toward the school.
2. The man showed the shirt to Peter.
3. I think most people usually don't like to work on Sundays.
4. John walks home from school every day.
5. The people in the store didn't understand me when I asked for a pepper.

6. The bowl is on the table.
7. My father has seeds in his jeep.
8. When my friend and I were gathering firewood, I accidentally hurt his shin.
9. The students saw the girl's lip.
10. My little brother always causes trouble by playing with the mats.
11. I saw the man who was selling his boat.
12. Our principal owns a beautiful wide boat.
13. The shark was beaten by the man.
14. The mother watched the baby.
15. The woman heated the fish.
16. He told me to put it in the back.

SUBTEST 3: READING COMPREHENSION — Pages 8-12 of Student Form, 25 points

DIRECTIONS: This reading comprehension test is composed of five parts. Three parts involve reading a paragraph and indicating a choice of correct response. One section is definitions where the meaning selected is indicated by a, b, or c. and the last section involves ordering sentences in a paragraph. In each section the student will indicate the answer he has chosen by writing a letter, (or circling a letter if there is a prepared form) on the answer sheet.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Wadek mwau paragraph oh kadehdeh sentence kei pah. Ma mwaurin kosoi pahn pwungiehng nan paragraph powe ke pahn intingihti "A" nan omw doropwe en sapeng pwe "A" me mi pah inda "ehi, melel de pung." Ma mwaurin kosoi sohte pwungiehng paragraph ke pahn intingihti "B" pwe "B" me mi pah inda "soh, sapung."

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: (For page 8 of the Group Test Booklet.) Here is a paragraph (point to the paragraph to be read) which each of you will read silently. After you have read the paragraph read each of the sentences which follows the paragraph. As you read the sentence decide if it is true, according to what you read in the paragraph, or if it is not true. If it is true you will write "A" on your answer sheet because "A" says, "Yes, true." If it is not true, write "B" on your paper because "B" says "No, false." Are there any questions?

APPENDIX G

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: (Pages 9 & 10) Now look at page 9. Here is another paragraph which you will read silently. After you have read the paragraph read the questions which are numbered 5. to 8. There are three answers to the questions which are marked, "a., b., or c"; decide which is the correct answer to the question and write that letter on your paper. For example we have the question, "Who is talking to Eliot?" After you have read the paragraph you will know that it was an old man who was talking to Eliot and so you would choose "C" and write "C" on your paper.

Now turn to page 10. Here you have two paragraphs which you will read. (Point) After you have read the paragraphs look at the sentences which are number 9-14. For each statement there are four ways to end the sentence marked "a., b., c., or d". You must decide which is the right ending. Mark the letter of that ending on your paper. Are there any questions about pages 9 & 10?

Now turn to page 11. On this page you read the sentences and look at the words which are underlined. Then you look at the words marked "a, b, or c" and decide which gives the meaning of the underlined words in the sentence. Put the letter of the right answer on your answer sheet. For practice let's look at the example. "My classes let out yesterday." What words are underlined? Now which word means "let out"? a. Started? b. finished? c. continued? That's right "finished" so you would write "B" on your paper. Are there any questions.

Now let's look at page 12. This page is different. Here you will read five sentences which are marked "a, b, c, d, and e". These sentences are not in the right order to make a paragraph. You must decide how you would put them in order if you were to write a story. Which one should be first, which second, third, fourth and last. Then you will choose which of the titles at the bottom of the page is the best for this paragraph. We will practice with the example at the top of the page. GO THROUGH THE EXAMPLE MAKING SURE THAT THE STUDENTS UNDERSTAND THAT FOR SENTENCE ONE THEY ARE TO CHOOSE THAT MARKED A, B, OR C. ALSO FOR SENTENCE 1, 2, and 3. ALSO HELP THEM TO SELECT THE BEST TITLE. (Since this is a new task INSTRUCTIONS IN PONAPEAN HAVE BEEN PREPARED. These should be used either before or after doing the example. The examiner should judge when needed.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: (For the last part of Subtest 3, page 12.) Ke pahn wadek sentence pwukat me kilelkihdi "a, b, c, d, e," oh kosonehdi mehnia pahn tapin paragraph, mihnia me pahn keriau, lel kelimau. Nan numbe 20. ke pahn pilata me sentence "a," de "b", de "c", de "d", de "e" me pahn tapin paragraph oh kileledi letter me pung. Nan 21. ih me pahn keriau, oh lel 24. ih me pahn kaimwisekela paragraph. Nan numbe 25 ke pahn kilelehdi taidel me mwau ong paragraph.

ENGLISH: Are there any questions on pages 8, 9, 10, 11 or 12. (If testing is not on a large scale the students would probably be instructed to go back and do this subtest. However, where many students are being tested the examiner may have to go on to other groups and therefore will continue on with the instructions for the next subtest.)

SUBTEST 4: ENGLISH STRUCTURES, GRAMMAR, AND VOCABULARY: Pages 13-17.
50 points.

DIRECTIONS: After doing three examples together the students are instructed to complete the test by choosing the correct form either "a", "b" or "c" or indicating by writing the appropriate number on their answer sheet.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Wadek mahs sentence pwukat oh intingihdi letter "A", "B", or "C" nan omwail doropwe en sapeng peidek kan me lepin lokaia pahn pwungiehng mwauri en sentence. Ke pahn wia karasepe siluh mas. Ni omw pahn kanekehla pali 13 en, ke pil pahn uhsehla pali 14 lel 17.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: On this subtest you will choose the correct way of saying 50 different sentences. For each sentence you are given three different ways which people might use in saying these sentences but only one way is right. See if "A", "B" or "C" is the way the sentence should be written or spoken. When you have decided which is right put that letter on your answer sheet. We will do the three examples together first. Look at no. 1. "The book belongs to Mary; is is A. his
B. hers
C. its

Which is the right way to end that sentence? That's right "hers" so you would write "B" on your answer sheet. Now let's do the next one. (Continue making sure they understand the three positions for correct answers.) You will do the others by yourselves. When you have finished page 13, go on and do 14, 15, 16 and 17. Are there any questions?

SUBTEST 5: FREE COMPOSITION Separate Sheet. Total 50 points.

DIRECTIONS: The examiner puts up a picture (family gathering) where all the students can see and asks them to write a story. They should be free to take as long as they feel necessary.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Kumwail en kihlang kilel kiset oh intingihdi kosoi pwot duwen kilel wet ni lokaiahn waih.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: Look at this picture (point to picture), please write me a story about this picture in English. You may take as long as you like to finish your story. Write as much as you can. Fill the paper if you can but if you cannot, then write as many sentences as you can. You may begin.

SUBTEST 6: ORAL PRODUCTION Score on Individual Score Sheet.
Total Possible Score 27 points.

DIRECTIONS: The examiner asks the test questions and rates the responses according to the scales provided. Following this the two pictures are shown and the responses to these pictures are also rated from the same scale.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Ahnsouwet lih menet (de ohl menet) pahn wia peidek kei ong uhk, ni lokaiahn waih. Ke pahn sapeng peidek kan. Ke dehpa masak de perki no omw pahn sapeng.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: Hello. My name is _______________. I am going to ask you a few questions. Please answer them as completely as you can. Don't be afraid. Just do the best you can.

SCALES:

	3	2	1	0
Magnitude:	Answers fully	Responds readily	Hesitant to answer	No response
Relevancy:	Complete relevance	General relevance	Considerable confusion	Unintelligible
Sequence of Ideas:	Logical	Hesitant progression	Confused sequence	Unintelligible

PART I: Conversation:
1. What is your name?
2. Where do you live?
3. Do you have any brothers or sisters?
4. How old are you?
5. Are you Ponapean? Where were you born?
6. Do you work at home?
7. What do you do?
8. Do you like to (what is named in questions 7)?
9. What do you like to do best?

PART II: Picture 1: "Some visitors have come to the island. They want you to show them all the interesting places. What would you do and what would you say?"

PART III: Picture 2: "You were swimming with a friend and you saw a shark coming. Tell me a story about what happened."

SUBTEST 7: ORAL PRODUCTION (Mimicry) Score on Score Sheet.
80 points.

DIRECTIONS: The examiner reads a sentence aloud and asks the child to repeat it exactly. Each sentence is scored on pronunciation and intonation-stress, according to the scales provided. Special attention is paid to the underlined letters in the sentences for rating purposes.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Rong mwau oh alasang dah me sounpadahk pahn inda. Mwurin sounpadahk e pahn inda lepin lokaia kan, ke pahn song inda duwehtehte me sounpadahk pahn inda. I pahn kihong uhk karasepe: Ranwet inenen mwau. I pahn kola poln dohlo. (If no response.) Ke pahn alasang. (Then repeat examples.)

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ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: I am going to say some words. Repeat them after me and say them exactly as I do. Let's practice. (Give two examples using hello--with intonation-stress differences.) That's the idea. Now I am going to say some sentences. Repeat them after me and say them exactly as I do. Ready?

SCALES:

PRONUNCIATION:

4	3	2	1	0
Near-native	Intelligible	Partially intelligible	Not intelligible	Nothing

INTONATION STRESS:

4	3	2	1	0
Near-native	Partially intelligible	Great difficulty	Barely intell.	Nothing

SENTENCES:

The sentences may be repeated one more time if necessary.

---

1. It's a chair.
2. There's your brother Moses.
3. Bring me a sharp pencil, Bob.
4. He's an old man, isn't he?
5. Choose the first five feathers.
6. Jack and Jill went up the hill.
7. She wishes she had fish.
8. Tad likes to dance, Dad.
9. Thank you for thinking of the tank.
10. Kumiko's getting the cakes together.

SUBTEST 8: ORAL READING

Total 9 points.

DIRECTIONS: The student is asked to read a paragraph out loud. His word production, ease of reading, and understanding of the material are rated according to the scales provided. Understanding is judged on the basis of his ability to answer the three comprehension questions.

PONAPEAN INSTRUCTIONS: Wadek ni ngil laud kosoih kiset oh mwuhr sounpadahk pahn peidek rehmw.

ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONS: Please read this story out loud to me. (Hand card to

APPENDIX G

student) Then I will ask you some questions which I want you to answer. You may start reading the story.

SCALES:

WORD PRODUCTION:

3	2	1	0
Near-native	Intelligible	Partially intelligible	Unintelligible

EASE AND SPEED:

3	2	1	0
Rapid, fluent	Slower but steady	Considerable hesitation	Unintelligible

UNDERSTANDING:

3	2	1	0
Answers all three questions	two	Answers one	No correct response

THE PARAGRAPH: (The student reads from a card.)

> The most honored man in our village is not an old man, wise with years of experience. He is, instead, the man who came and taught the people of our village how to be healthy. He is a young man, and he laughs with us when we call him "Doc." He understands us and answers even our smallest questions. He has cured many illnesses and quieted many fears. Now he is training other men to be like him and to take his place when he leaves us.

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS:

1. Was the man old or young?
2. What was the man's job? What did he do in the village?
3. Will the man stay there the rest of his life, or is he going home after awhile?

—— —— —— ——

SCALE FOR SCORING COMPOSITIONS

	low		middle		high
Ideas ------------	2	4	6	8	10
Organization -----	2	4	6	8	10
Wording ----------	1	2	3	4	5
Flavor -----------	1	2	3	4	5
Usage ------------	1	2	3	4	5
Punctuation ------	1	2	3	4	5
Spelling ---------	1	2	3	4	5
Handwriting ------	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G

CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST
STUDENT FORM

SUBTEST 1: AURAL COMPREHENSION — LEVEL III Group
DO NOT WRITE ON THIS PAPER — (Page 1)

DIRECTIONS: (English directions may be used at this Level. Adapt those given in Examiner's and Interpreter's Form to fit locally selected answer sheets.)

Example: This selection is about
- a. pumpkin pie.
- b. fruit cake.
- c. typical dishes.
- d. holidays.

1. Pumpkin pie and fruit cake are:
   - a. very delicious.
   - b. always given to relatives.
   - c. typical dishes in the United States.
   - d. a kind of cake.

2. For Christmas, American housewives:
   - a. work hard.
   - b. make pumpkin pie.
   - c. take a vacation.
   - d. make fruit cake.

3. What do people do with typical dishes?
   - a. Wash them.
   - b. Serve on them.
   - c. Eat them.
   - d. Try not to break them.

4. Fruit cake is given to relatives if:
   - a. it is expensive.
   - b. it is Thanksgiving.
   - c. it is good.
   - d. housewives make enough of it.

5. Typical dishes are found:
   - a. only in the United States.
   - b. in every country.
   - c. only on Christmas and Thanksgiving.
   - d. by housewives.

SUBTEST 2: AURAL COMPREHENSION AND DISCRIMINATION

Same as at Level II. See pp. 204-212.

APPENDIX G

READING COMPREHENSION

SUBTEST 3

LEVEL III
Group

PARAGRAPH TO BE READ BY EACH STUDENT:

If you look carefully at the skin on the ends of your fingers, you will see little lines. Those lines on your fingers never change as long as you live. You can make your own fingerprints by putting your finger in ink and then making a mark on a piece of paper. Every person makes a different fingerprint because everybody has a different pattern of lines on his fingers.

Example: You can make your own fingerprints.
a. Yes, true.
b. No, false.

1. People in the same family have the same fingerprints.
a. Yes, true.
b. No, false.

2. When you were a little child, your fingerprints was the same as it is now.
a. Yes, true.
b. No, false.

3. When you are old, your fingerprint will look different.
a. Yes, true.
b. No, false.

4. None of your friends has the same fingerprint as you do.
a. Yes, true.
b. No, false.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE AND READ THE NEXT PARAGRAPH

APPENDIX G

READING COMPREHENSION

SUBTEST 3: (continued) LEVEL III Group

PARAGRAPH TO BE READ BY EACH STUDENT:

"Under that stone," said the old man, "there lives a big lizard who is as old as these hills." Eliot moved quickly to the other side of the road. The old man went on, "He knows all that has happened in these parts since long before even I was born. That lizard could tell some tales. They say that just when you think you are all alone and you do something you should not do, if you look around, you will see the lizard watching you." Eliot looked questioningly at the old man, but the old man's face was empty, as always.

Example: Karasepe: Who was talking to Eliot?
a. One of his friends.
b. The chief of the island.
c. An old man.

5. Why did Eliot move across the road?
   a. The sun was too hot.
   b. The old man told him to move.
   c. He was afraid the lizard would come out.

6. What does "these parts" mean in the story?
   a. Parts of a motor.
   b. The area where the old man and the boy live.
   c. Parts of the old man's body.

7. What does the writer mean when he says "the old man's face was empty"?
   a. He didn't have any eyes, nose or mouth.
   b. He wasn't eating anything.
   c. His face didn't show his feelings or thoughts.

8. Why does Eliot look "questioningly" at the old man?
   a. He wonders if the story is true.
   b. He wants the old man to stop talking.
   c. He is afraid of the old man.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE AND READ THE NEXT PARAGRAPH

APPENDIX G

READING COMPREHENSION

SUBTEST 3: (continued) LEVEL III Group

PARAGRAPH TO BE READ BY EACH STUDENT: (Answer just as you did on the last page.)

The Crocodilians are divided into four groups: (1) alligators; (2) caymen; (3) crocodiles and (4) gavials. Alligators are found in the Southeastern United States and in the Yangtse River Basin of China. Caymen are found in and around the waterways of South America. Crocodiles occur more generally than any of the other crocodilians, various species being present in the Southwestern United States, West Indies, Africa, and in Australia and the West Pacific, including New Guinea and Palau. Gavials are indigenous to India, and are almost extinct today. Certain religious sects in India, however, worship the gavial and keep him fed and tended in watery enclosures.

Of all the crocodilians only two species are normally considered dangerous even when unprovoked. Both species are crocodiles, and include the Nile Crocodile and the ocean-going "salt-water" crocodile. In zoos throughout the world are captive members of the Crocodilians. Semi-domesticated crocodilians are, as is most other species of captive animals, unpredictable.

9. The family of Crocodilians is divided into
   a. two groups. c. four groups.
   b. three groups. d. ten groups.

10. The group which occurs only in South America is the
   a. alligator. c. gavial.
   b. caymen d. crocodile.

11. The group type which occurs most widely throughout the world is the
   a. alligator. c. crocodile.
   b. caymen. d. gavial.

12. Certain religious sects worship the crocodilians which are found in
   a. China. c. India.
   b. South America. d. the southeastern United States.

13. The two species of crocodilians considered dangerous even when unprovoked are:
   a. gavials and salt-water crocodiles.
   b. Nile crocodiles and caymen.
   c. alligators and caymen.
   d. salt-water crocodiles and Nile crocodiles.

14. Crocodiles in zoos are like other species of captive animals in that
   a. they are kept in watery enclosures. c. they are unprotected.
   b. how they will behave is not certain. d. feeding is more difficult.

APPENDIX G

READING COMPREHENSION

SUBTEST 3: (continued) LEVEL III Group

DIRECTIONS: (Use English directions. Adapt to fit answer sheets selected.)

Example: Karasepe: My classes let out yesterday.
a. started
b. finished
c. continued

15. This problem calls for an expert.
a. requires
b. gives the name of
c. telephones

16. I ran out of wood for the fire.
a. moved fast
b. moved out
c. used up

17. The speaker went on.
a. continued
b. left
c. wanted

18. A student brought up the problem of books for the class.
a. solved
b. mentioned
c. studied

19. He wanted a day to think it over.
a. try to cover it
b. finish it
c. consider it

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE AND READ THE DIRECTIONS AGAIN

APPENDIX G

READING COMPREHENSION

SUBTEST 3: (continued) LEVEL III Group

DIRECTIONS: (Use English directions. Adapt to fit answer sheets selected.)

Examples:
a. After school I walked home alone.
b. This morning I woke up at 6:45 A.M.
c. Later I walked to school with my friends.

Answers:
Sentence 1. a. (b.) c.
Sentence 2. a. b. (c.)
Sentence 3. (a.) b. c.

A good title for this paragraph would be

a. I Go to School
(b.) My Day
c. My School

YOU SHOULD READ THESE SENTENCES FIRST.

a. They will help him care for the cattle.

b. The man is Kenneth Jones, and his idea is to grow great herds of cattle so that the Micronesian people will have fresh beef to eat.

c. Later, they will package the meat to be sold throughout all of Micronesia.

d. Many miles away, on an island called Tinian, a man is trying out a new idea, or at least an idea which is new to the Trust Territory.

e. He has leased many acres of land and has employed several local men to be his cowboys.

20. Sentence number 1 in the paragraph should be: a. b. c. d. e.

21. The next sentence, number 2, should be: a. b. c. d. e.

22. The next sentence, number 3, should be: a. b. c. d. e.

23. The next sentence, number 4, should be: a. b. c. d. e.

24. The last sentence in the paragraph should be: a. b. c. d. e.

25. A good title for the paragraph would be:
a. The Best Food for You
b. Beef for Micronesia
c. How to Raise Cattle

Total Right ____________
(25)

APPENDIX G

SUBTEST 4:

LEVEL III
Group

DO NOT WRITE ON THIS PAPER:

DIRECTIONS: (At this Level printed directions may be in English with oral directions in both English and the vernacular. Instructions should be adapted for the type of answer sheet being used.)

EXAMPLES:
KARASEPE:

I. The book belongs to Mary; it is a. his
b. hers
c. its

a. am
II. John and I b. are students.
c. be

III. a. How are you today?
b. How are today you?
c. How today are you?

---

1. a. Is eating your father?
b. Is your father eating?
c. Eating is your father?

2. a. In his coffee sugar he uses.
b. He uses in his coffee sugar.
c. He uses sugar in his coffee.

a. it him.
3. I gave b. to him it.
c. it to him.

a. other.
4. He has a boat but wants b. one.
c. another one.

a. wants breakfast on time.
5. John always b. on time wants breakfast.
c. wants on time breakfast.

6. a. Of whom
b. Whose is this?
c. Of who

a. said
7. She b. told me the answer.
c. talked

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

APPENDIX G

SUBTEST 4 (continued) ENGLISH GRAMMAR LEVEL III Group

---

a. kind of
8. What b. class pencil is that?
c. kind

a. will
9. He b. wills to go with you.
c. wants

a. herself.
10. The boy bathed b. himself.
c. itself.

a. waited
11. He b. waited for the train.
c. awaited for

a. to
12. I have b. to go there.
c. going

a. hardly
13. It is b. very difficult to write on a grain of rice.
c. much

a. how to
14. I know b. how ride a Honda.
c. to

a. am
15. I b. have been here a long time.
c. am being

a. you do
16. Please b. do it.
c. to do

a. I saw
17. The man b. what I saw was happy.
c. I seen

18. a. How
b. What should he say?
c. When

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

APPENDIX G

SUBTEST 4 (continued) ENGLISH GRAMMER LEVEL III Group

---

a. going
19. Won't you b. go with me?
c. to go

20. a. The three old pictures
b. The old three pictures are valuable.
c. More three old pictures

a. the beautifullest
21. Anita is b. the most beautiful girl in the class.
c. most beautiful

22. a. When I were
b. If I were you, I would go.
c. I were

a. more well
23. He studied b. better on Tuesday.
c. more goodly

a. must
24 We b. ought go.
c. must to

a. some of shirts
25. Are b. any of the shirts clean?
c. any of shirts

a. put himself a cap.
26. James b. put a cap.
c. put a cap on.

a. for
27. He works b. for to get money.
c. to

a. something
28. He doesn't have b. nothing for you.
c. anything

a. making
29. The man is b. getting his hair cut.
c. doing

a. found
30. He couldn't b. finding his hat.
c. find

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

APPENDIX G

SUBTEST 4 (continued) ENGLISH GRAMMAR LEVEL III Group

---

31. a. Does the wind blow hard?
    b. Does the wind blows hard?
    c. Blows hard the wind?

32. He finished
    a. to read
    b. read
    c. reading
    the letter.

33. How much
    a. the books cost?
    b. cost the books?
    c. do the books cost?

34. John
    a. throw
    b. have thrown
    c. threw
    his cap in the air.

35. I have a new
    a. pair of zori.
    b. pairs of zoris.
    c. pair of zoris.

36. I want you
    a. go
    b. to go
    c. going
    Tuesday.

37. She comes tomorrow,
    a. won't she?
    b. doesn't she?
    c. isn't she?

38. This cat catches
    a. mouses.
    b. mouse.
    c. mice.

39. She hasn't been singing,
    a. did she?
    b. was she?
    c. has she?

40. a. Hundred thousand
    b. A hundred thousand
    c. An hundred thousand
    people came to the game.

41. He wants
    a. several bigs ones.
    b. several big one.
    c. several big ones.

42. He speaks that language
    a. worst
    b. baddest
    c. most bad
    of all.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE

APPENDIX G

SUBTEST 4 (continued) ENGLISH GRAMMAR LEVEL III Group

---

43. They
a. should to
b. ought to
c. must to
go at once.

44. She promised
a. to try to learn to swim.
b. to try learn to swim.
c. to try to learn swim.

45. He turned
a. on
b. down
c. up
the radio to make it louder.

46. The pens are
a. like.
b. same.
c. alike

47. Every
a. girl have
b. girls have
c. girl has
new books.

48. Mrs. Jones isn't home,
a. does she?
b. is she?
c. isn't she?

49. There is not
a. much
b. many
c. much of
news in the paper.

50. I am
a. interested to
b. interesting in
c. interested in
learning English,

Adapted from DIAGNOSTIC TEST FOR STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE, A. L. Davis, The American Language Center, The American University, Washington, D. C.

APPENDIX G

SUBTEST 5: LEVEL III Group

CRC ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST Name____________________

Free Composition

Total Rating____________________
(50)

APPENDIX H

CORPUS

Book I

Unit I: Greetings
What's (your, his, her) name?
(My, his, her) name's Anita.

Unit II: Is (your, his, her) name Anita?
Yes, it is. No, it isn't.
What's the teacher's name?

Unit III: I'm Dakio. I'm a boy. I'm a student.
You're Ehas. You're a man. You're a teacher.
This is Lihse. She's a woman. She's a Ponapean woman.

Unit IV: Is (he, she) a teacher?
Yes, (he, she) is. No, (he, she) isn't.
Is she a girl? She's a girl.
Are you a student?
Yes, I am. No, I'm not.
Is (that, this) Peter?

Unit V: What's this? It's a/an ______.
What's that? That's a/an ______.
Tell me what this is.
Is (this, that) a chair?

Unit VI: (That, This) isn't a chair.
Bring me (a, an) ________.
Is it (a, an) ______.
It's (big, small). It's a (big, small) box.
I like the (big, small) ship.

Unit VII: Where are you from?
I'm from Kepinle.
Noun plurals (regular nouns)
Plural of verb to be
What are they? I don't know.
They're nurses.

Unit VIII: Please tell me what (these, those) are.
What are (these, those)?
(These, Those) are ships.
Are (these, those) balls?
These aren't ships. They're trees.

APPENDIX H

Corpus, Book I (continued)

Unit IX:	It's pretty. It's a pretty dress. Prepositions of place - in, on, under What color is it? What color are they? Where's your dress?
Unit X:	I (can, can't) swim. Can you? Can you swim fast?

Book II

Unit I:	How old are you? I'm seven years old. How old is (he, she)? (He's, She's) seven. What grade are you in? I'm in the first grade.
Unit II:	Where do you live? (I, You, We, They) live in Porakied. Where does (he, she) live? (He, She) lives in Kepinle. What do you do everyday? We sing and play. What does (he, she) do everyday? (He, She) cleans the house everyday.
Unit III:	Pronoun "one" I like _____, _____ _____. Intensifier "very"
Unit IV:	They like to eat bananas. He likes to play. What do monkeys like to do? What does he like to eat? Does father like to eat candy? Yes, he does. No, he doesn't. Do you like to drink coffee? Yes, I do. No, I don't.
Unit V:	Do you want rice or breadfruit? I want rice. I want to play ball. I'm hungry.
Unit VI:	Let's sing a song. Let's not go swimming. Want vs. like Know vs. learn

APPENDIX H

Corpus, Book II (continued)

Unit VII: What am I doing? I'm catching the ball.
What are you doing? You're catching the ball.
The baby's crying. Why is he crying?
What's (he, she) doing?
(He's, She's) eating.
(He, She) isn't sleeping.

Unit VIII: Days of the week.
Everyone, some, other
What are _____ _____ _____?
What's _____ _____ _____ _____?
(They're, He's, She's) _____ _____ _____ _____ _____.

Unit IX: (He, She) has two eyes.
Do you have a pet?
Does he have a tail?
(I, You, They) have tails.

Unit X: Who's crossing the bridge?
Little Billy Goat Gruff is crossing the bridge.
Who's bouncing the ball?
John is (bouncing the ball).
The (goat, goats) (live, lives) near a river.

Book III

Unit I: I don't like to work.
You don't have to work.
Preposition "with"
    climb with your arms
    swing with his tail

Unit II: Who are you?
Where is he?
When I wiggle my nose, he wiggles his nose.

Unit III: Where are you going?
I'm going to grandmother's house.
May signifying permission.
Watch out for the wolf!

Unit IV: Possessive nouns — grandmother's bed
Whose ________?
Possessive pronouns: his, hers, yours, ours, mine, theirs

APPENDIX H

Corpus, Book III (continued)

Unit V:	Up, down, into, over Let me go. I/we/he/she will help you. I'm sorry. I won't run up and down you again.
Unit VI:	All of us, one of us Why are you crying? two by two Counting by two's
Unit VII:	How many ________? There are/aren't ________. Are there ________.
Unit VIII:	myself with a cat, a dog, and a pig
Unit IX:	How much ________? a thousand dollars must
Unit X:	Counting from 31-50 Past tense: hide/hid find/found play/played look/looked

Book IV

Unit I:	Review Unit (no new structures)
Unit II:	They were wet. They were cold. They were wet and cold. They weren't hungry.
Unit III:	lots of, some/any, names of fruits/vegetables
Unit IV:	was/wasn't; He was a good boy. He was hungry.
Unit V:	did/didn't; Yes, I did. No, I didn't. does/did
Unit VI:	make/made; run/ran; eat/ate; come/came
Unit VII:	Why ________? ________ because ________ Go home.

APPENDIX H

Corpus, Book IV (continued)

Unit VIII:	How are you going? By ship. next week, on Friday, on the 25th, to Mokil
Unit IX:	Telling time (whole and half hours)
Unit X:	I'd like ________. Would you/he/she like ________? Yes, I would/No, I wouldn't.

Book V

Unit I:	Counting by fives I want to ________. The animals went in, but they didn't come out.
Unit II:	half and quarter hours before, after
Unit III:	has, have, had
Unit IV:	is, are (review)
Unit V:	Why ________? How ________?
Unit VI:	made of S + V + O
Unit VII:	has to, have to
Unit VIII:	with a net with chopsticks without a pillow
Unit IX:	They use banana leaves for plates. They use banana leaves to sit on.
Unit X:	Have you seen my kite? Yes, I have. No, I haven't. Shapes: square, circle, rectangle, triangle

Book VI

Unit I:	Lakhmi wears a sari because she's a girl.

APPENDIX H

Corpus, Book VI (continued)

Unit II: ________ or ________
Commands
do not = don't

Unit III: Review of past tense
________ to watch ________

Unit IV: Review he, she, they
habitual present tense

Unit V: Review: Would you like ________?
Show me ________.
Bring me ________.
Help me ________.

Unit VI: ________ who go to high school.
________ which is a tall wooden building.

Unit VII: ________ where the men work.

Unit VIII: Review: to see, to ride, sell
sustained intonation in series
contrast past/present tense

Unit IX: For the first time ________.
________ but ________

Unit X: Post modifiers

Book VII

Unit I: Pronouns in the objective case used as indirect objects. Ex: Give him the seat by the door.

Unit II: Get it out of the closet.
We need the brushes, too.
Embedding: They're in the big box.
The box is in the closet.
They're in the box in the closet.

Unit III: All of the girls are present.
Some of the boys are absent.
No one is absent.
Is anyone absent?
Many of the children are absent.

APPENDIX H

Corpus, Book VII (continued)

Unit IV: Why were you absent?
Are you feeling better?
Were you sick?
Everyone is here except Maria?

Unit V: Irregular verbs: bring/brought
drink/drank

Unit VI: -ly adverbs

Unit VII: mine, yours, ours, theirs, his, hers

Unit VIII: Comparative adjectives
Conjunction *than*
Adverb phrases of place

Unit IX: Superlative adjectives
of all
of the four

Unit X: Tag questions
Those are snails, aren't they?
Those aren't snails, are they?

Book VIII

Unit I: Embedding:
It's a pencil. It's long. It's yellow.
It's a long yellow pencil.

Unit II: some, any

Unit III: bought, brought

Unit IV: Contrast of *a* and *the*
Pronoun *one*

Unit V: as big as (comparison of equals)
almost as big as

Unit VI: always, never, sometimes

Unit VII: often, usually

Unit VIII: Give him a shirt.
We're giving Kodaro a shirt.
We're giving a shirt to Kodaro.

APPENDIX H

Corpus, Book VIII (continued)

Unit IX:	Irregular verbs: fly/flew run/ran see/saw
Unit X:	Where ________? expansions of place substitutes for here and there

Book IX

Unit I:	What was the date? What day was it? Not, anymore Was I/he/she supposed to ________?
Unit II:	Where did you come from? I came from Kolonia. Which village did you live in? I used to live in Kepinle. Did you know her, too?
Unit III:	You ride but I walk. close to, far from A canoe is fast but a boat is faster.
Unit IV:	John drew a boat and Timothy did, too. I didn't know it and he didn't either. I do, too. I don't either.
Unit V:	There was/There were Was there/Were there There wasn't/ There weren't
Unit VI:	She is unhappy because her parents don't love her. I'm so unhappy because my parents don't love me.
Unit VII:	They had to use a pole and paddles. I have to go to Jeh Island.
Unit VIII:	Review: had to/have to He was quick to learn. He wasn't eager to learn.
Unit IX:	How far is it to Sokehs? It's about three miles. I want to go with you. I want you to stay at home.

APPENDIX H

Corpus, Book IX (continued)

Unit X: She found an egg while she gathered taro.

Book X

Unit I: as, as long as, at the same time,
during the time (used as variations of while)

Unit II: more, most (comparative, superlative)

Unit III: longer, longest (regular comparative, superlative)

Unit IV: gave, sent, brought (irregular past tense)

Unit V: have got/have got to

Unit VI: Review: often, sometimes, who, which, that, while, when

Unit VII: good, better, best

Unit VIII: had seen/have seen

Unit IX: for many weeks, since June 19
have/had been crying

Unit X: If __________
supposed to
why does he have __________?